

**AN OPTIMIZATION MODEL FOR NO_x AND
SO_x EMISSION REDUCTION IN POWER
GENERATION**

BY
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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my beloved **parents**, my **wife**, my **brothers**, my **sisters**, my **daughter***Manar and* my **son***Taym*.

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ABSTRACT

Full Name MOHAMMED KARAMA SAEED ALSEBAEAI

Title of Study AN OPTIMIZATION MODEL FOR NO_x AND SO_x
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The power generation sector is considered as one of the major contributors to air pollution. There are different air emissions that can be emitted from power generation and among these are NO_x and SO_x emissions which will be the focus of this research. In this study, an optimization model was formulated and written in a general format. The objective of this model is to select the best pollution control strategy for the power generation to reduce NO_x and SO_x to specific level while meeting the electricity demand at minimum cost. Three different mitigation options were considered to reduce NO_x and SO_x and these are: fuel balancing, switching and implementing different control technologies.

The model is illustrated in two case studies (1 and 2) taken from Ontario Power Generation, Canada. The two cases consider NO_x and SO_x emissions respectively. Mainly in this work will be focus on SO₂ emissions. For the NO_x case when we consider two options (fuel balancing and switching), it was found that fuel switching is the best option of choice for reduction targets from 5 up to 30%. However, by considering all mitigation options, the result shows that applying SCR technology is the best option to reduce NO_x emissions. The results of other case which considers SO₂ emissions and involves fuel balancing and switching show that the optimum option for SO₂ reduction is fuel switching

for higher reduction targets (from 5 up to 75%). On the other hand, for the case in which all options are considered, the results show that applying FGD technology is the best option to reduce SO₂ emissions and it can achieve up to 85% SO₂ reduction. Sensitivity analysis was carried out in both case studies, and the result indicates that the only affected variable is the total annualized cost.

THESIS ABSTRACT (ARABIC)

ملخص الرسالة

الاسم : محمد كرامه سعيد السباعي

عنوان الرسالة: تطوير برنامج رياضي أمثل للحد من انبعاثات أكاسيد النيتروجين والكبريت من

محطات توليد الطاقة

التخصص: هندسة كيميائية

يعتبر قطاع توليد الطاقة الكهربائية من أكبر المساهمين في تلوث الهواء. فهناك ملوثات مختلفة يمكن ان تنبعث من هذه المحطات ومن بين هذه الانبعاثات أكاسيد النيتروجين والكبريت و التي ستكون محور هذه الدراسة. في هذا البحث تمت صياغة نموذج رياضي أمثل ومكتوب بشكل عام. الهدف من هذا النموذج هو تحديد أفضل الحلول أثناء توليد الطاقة للحد من تراكيز الملوثات (أكاسيد النيتروجين و الكبريت) إلى التراكيز المستهدفة في حين تلبية الطلب على الكهرباء بأقل تكلفة ممكنة. ولقد تم دراسة ثلاث طرق للحد من هذه الاكاسيد وهذه الطرق هي: التوازن بين الوقود, استبدال الوقود وتطبيق تكنولوجيا التحكم المختلفة.

هذا النموذج الرياضي تم تطبيقه على دراستين لحالتين مأخوذة من محطات توليد الكهرباء في ولاية أونتاريو، كندا. هذه الحالتين تهتم بانبعاثات أكاسيد النيتروجين و الكبريت على التوالي. من أهم انبعاثات اكاسيد الكبريت التي يهتم بها هذا البحث هي انبعاثات ثاني أكسيد الكبريت. ومن خلال البحث في دراسة حالة أكاسيد النيتروجين وعندما طبقنا خيار (موازنة الوقود واستبداله)، وجدنا أن استبدال الوقود هو أفضل خيار للحد من تراكيز أكاسيد النيتروجين من 5 - 30 %. ولكن من خلال تطبيق كل خيارات ووسائل للحد من هذه الانبعاثات، أظهرت النتائج أن تطبيق تكنولوجيا التقليل الانتقائي الحفاز (SCR) هو الخيار الأفضل للحد من هذه الانبعاثات.

في حين نتائج دراسة الحالة الأخرى التي تأخذ بالاعتبار انبعاثات ثاني أكسيد الكبريت والتي تم فيها تطبيق خيار توازن الوقود واستبداله، أظهرت أن الخيار الأمثل للحد من هذه الانبعاثات بنسب تتراوح من 5 - 75 % هو استبدال الوقود. أما بالنسبة للحالة التي أخذنا فيها بنظر الاعتبار كل خيارات الحد من انبعاثات ثاني أكسيد الكبريت ، فقد بينت النتائج أن تطبيق تكنولوجيا ازالة الكبريت من غاز المداخن (FGD) هو الخيار الأمثل وأنه يمكن أن نحد من هذه الانبعاثات الى نسبة تصل الى 85 %. وقد أجرينا تحليل في كلتا الدراستين، وكانت النتيجة تشير إلى أن هذا التحليل له أثر على التكلفة الإجمالية السنوية.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The power generation industry is the lifeblood of the developed country. It became one of the most important global industries generating electricity for all other industries as well as all people rely profoundly on it in their daily lives. Electricity has been often generated at power stations since 1881.

The earliest power generation stations used reciprocating steam engines to generate power. But, there was a difficulty to develop the high rotational speeds needed to drive a generator effectively. In 1884, Sir Charles Parsons invented the steam turbine to overcome this difficulty. Coal was usually the fuel for these plants, used to raise steam in a boiler. In the second half of the nineteenth century, much of the key work on different turbine types used was carried out to capture power from flowing water. Both the spark-ignition engine and the diesel engine also had been developed by the beginning of the twentieth century. As a way of generating power, work also began on the use of wind turbines before World War II. But until the beginning of the 1950s, steam turbine power stations burning fossil fuels, together with hydropower stations, provided the bulk of the global power generation capacity (Breeze 2005).

In the 1950s, the age of nuclear power which is the most contentious of all the forms of power generation was born. Nuclear power grew rapidly in the USA up to the late 1970s. The UK, France and Germany all began to build up significant nuclear generating capacities too. In the Far East, Japan, Taiwan and South Korea worked more slowly. Russia developed its own plants and China began a nuclear program, as well as India. From the end of the 1970s, particularly in the west, the progress of the nuclear industry has slowed dramatically while in Asia the story still alive (Breeze 2005).

In 1973, a major upheaval in world oil prices caused by the Arab–Israeli war. At that time, oil had also become a major fuel for power stations. Countries that were burning it extensively began to seek new sources for generating electricity and interest in renewable energy sources began to take off. As a result of rising oil prices, a wide variety of different alternative energy technologies has been investigated such as hot-rock geothermal power, wave power and the use of ethanol derived from crops instead of petrol or oil. However the main winners were wind power and solar power. After development and by the end of the century both solar and wind technologies had reached the stage where they were both technically and economically workable (Breeze 2005).

In the 1980s, wide-ranging measures to reduce environmental emissions from fossil-fuel-fired power plants were implemented by the industry. During the 1980s and 1990s the gas turbine had become one of the most widely used prime movers for new power generation applications – both base load and demand following – practically everywhere. The configuration which combines gas and steam turbines in a single power station known as the combined cycle plant. This configuration has become the main source of new base-

load generating capacity in many countries where natural gas is readily available, and also can provide a cheap, high-capacity, high-efficiency power generation unit with low environmental emissions (Breeze 2005).

The importance of new and renewable sources of electricity has been seen renewed in the first years of the twenty-first century. Fuel cells, a technically highly developed but expensive source of electricity, are approaching commercial viability.

Also, three different technologies designed to extract energy from the world's seas and oceans. They are ocean thermal energy conversion (OTEC), wave energy conversion and ocean current (Breeze 2005).

A thermal power plant operates similarly to how nuclear power plants and petroleum power plants work. The difference is the source of heat. The components of these plants are almost the same. For example, The main components of a modern coal-fired power plant can be shown in Figure 1.1. They can be divided into the following plant sections (Spliethoff 2010):

- Fuel supply and preparation
- Steam generator with furnace
- Turbine and generator
- Heat rejection unit, condenser, cooling tower
- Units for emissions reduction and disposal

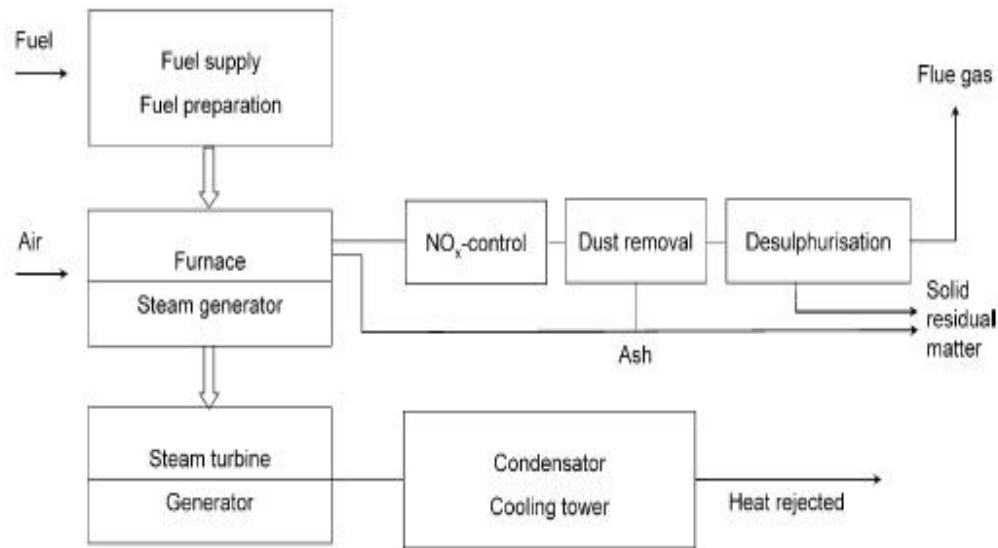


Figure 1.1 components of a steam power plant (Spliethoff 2010)

The power generation industry depends on the available fuel sources and has to apply the best technologies for converting fuel into electric power in the most economical way as well as the lowest adverse effect on the environment.

Energy production plays an important role in the evolution of societies. However it is considered as one of the major contributors to air pollution. Thermal electric power stations for example, burn large amounts of fossil fuels and produces nitrogen, sulfur and carbon dioxides and other pollutants which cause adverse effects to humans and environment. The average annual growth rate of energy in the world between 2005 and 2030 is expected to be about 2.4% due to the increase in population (Franco and Diaz 2009).

1.2Power generation overview

Coal, oil and gas are called "fossil fuels" because they have been formed from the organic remains of prehistoric plants and animals. A fossil fuel power plant operates similarly to how nuclear power plants and petroleum power plants work. The difference is the source of heat. The burning of coal replaces fissioning, or splitting, of uranium atoms as the source of heat. There are number of different steps and parts in coal power plant which allow for this process to happen, starting with the burning of the coal (www.duke-energy.com).

Step 1: Coalburningfor Heat

Because the coal cannot be burned in the form that it is naturally in, it is pulverized to the fineness of powder. It is then combined with extremely hot air and blown into the firebox of the boiler. Burning in suspension, means that the coal is not allowed settling while it is in the firebox. It results in the coal-air mixture provides the most complete combustion and maximum heat possible. The exhaust gases are also used to heat the boiler chamber before being released via the chimney stack. This is where the environmental pollutants such as CO₂, NO, SO₂ and ash, Called fly ash, are released into the air.

Step 2: Steam Pressure for Electricity

Highly purified water, pumped through pipes inside the boiler,the heat from the firebox then turns this water into steam. This steam in frequently reaches temperatures of up to 1,000 degrees Fahrenheit, and pressures up to 3,500 pounds per inch, then it is piped to the turbine. The extreme amount of pressure that is created in the boiler is enough to turn

the turbine blades that are in the turbine shaft. When these blades are turned, they connect to a generator, where magnets spin within wire coils. This process results in electricity.

Step 3: Condenser Cools the Steam

After the steam causes the turbine blades to turn, and the electricity is produced, the steam is then drawn into a condenser. A condenser is an extremely large chamber that is located in the basement of a power plant. The condenser is an important part of a steam-electric unit, whether nuclear or coal-fired. This device condenses the steam leaving the turbines back into water so that it can be used over and over again in the plant. This essential cooling process requires large quantities of water; therefore, most steam-electric stations are located on lakes or rivers. This significant amount of outside water is pumped through a network of tubes that runs through the condenser. The water that is in these tubes is what cools the steam, and allows the steam to be reconverted into water. After the steam is condensed, it is pumped to the boiler again to repeat the cycle; Figure 1.2 shows a simplified flow diagram for the process (www.duke-energy.com).

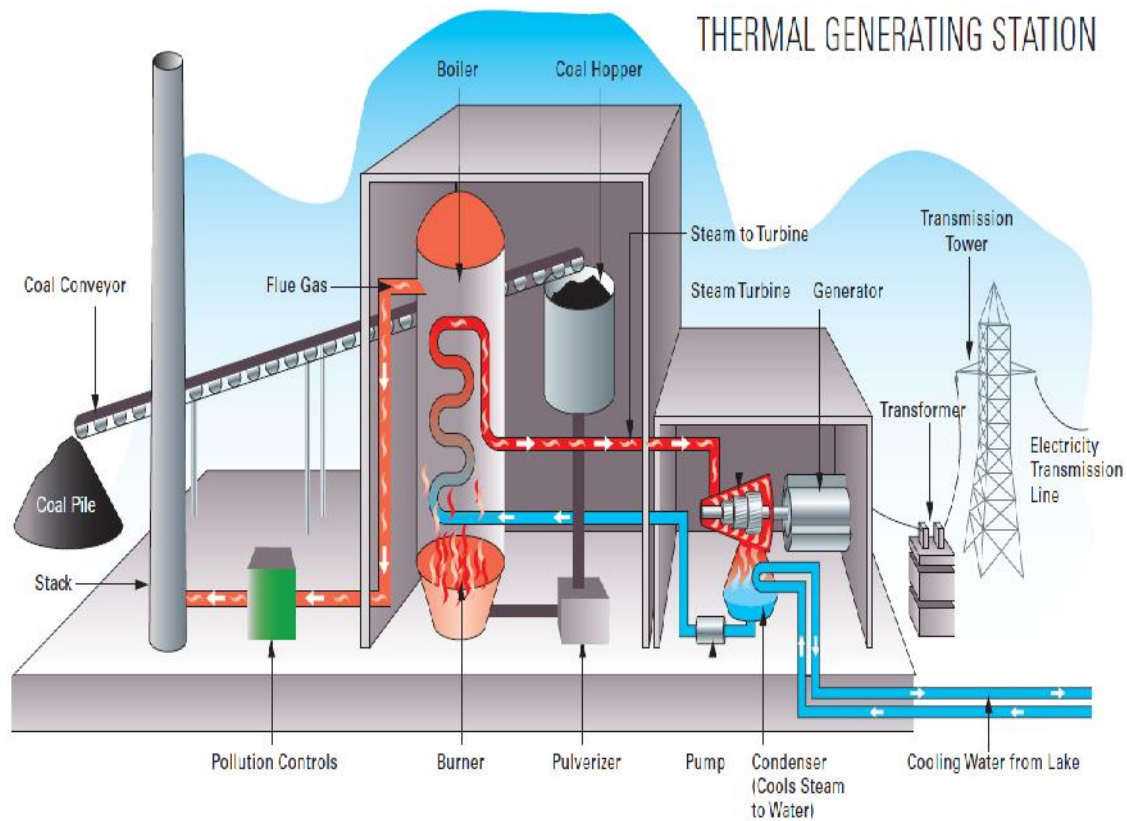


Figure1.2a simplified flow diagram for coal power (www.opg.com)

1.3 Researchcontribution

Recently, controlling air pollutants is an important issue for each country. The power plant sector is considered as one of the key contributing sources to the air pollution problem. NO_x and SO_x emissions released in the atmosphere by thermal power plant sectors have harmful consequences to human health and to the environment when their concentrations exceed environmental standards. Due to an increased importance on the reduction of these emissions from power generation plants; there has been a significance interest in applying emissions reduction technology to this sector. Therefore, it is essential

to develop and implement control options to reduce the emissions of these pollutants from this sector.

1.4 Research Objectives

The overall objective of this research is to determine the best strategy or mix of strategies for the electricity sector to meet a given SO₂ or NO_x reduction target at a minimum cost while maintaining a desired production level. A mathematical model will be formulated for the power generation sector to meet the overall objective. The model will be formulated as a MINLP (Mixed Integer Non-linear Program) and implemented in GAMS package. The objectives can be summarized as:

- Developing an optimization model that can be used to determine the best option to reduce NO_x and SO₂ emissions for the power generation sector.
- Applying this mathematical model on a real case study from Ontario power generation (OPG), Canada.
- Providing a decision support tool that can be used for production planning with least cost emissions reduction for different reduction target.
- Carrying out a sensitivity analysis because of uncertainty in control costs.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Almost all countries are now considering adopting policies and measures to reduce different air emissions. The power generation sector is considered as one of the major contributors to air pollution. For example, Thermalpower plants consumes a large quantity of fossil fuels every year and produce carbon oxides (CO and CO₂), sulfur oxides (SO_x) and nitrogen oxides (NO_x)and other pollutants. Some of these pollutants are directly toxic in themselves while others pose indirect health hazards by virtue of their ability to react with other pollutants in the air to form more risky compounds. Therefore, the negative effects of air emissions are their contribution to the formation of acid rain and theiradverse effectsespecially on human health and environment in general. Due to the increase in population, the average annual growth rate of energy in the world between 2005 and 2030 is expected to be about 2.4 %(Franco and Diaz 2009).

Ontario Power Generation (OPG) is one of the main producers of electricity in North America. Currently, it operates 65 hydroelectric, 5 thermal and 3 nuclear stations. As of December 31, 2010 OPG's electricity generating portfolio had a total in-service capacity of 19,931 megawatts (MW). About60% of Ontario's primary electricity demand or 88.6 terawatt hours (TWh) was produced by these generation stations(52% nuclear, 34%

hydroelectric and 14% thermal electricity)(www.opg.com). The thermal power plants emit different air emissions and NO_x and SO₂ will be the focus of this study. The following section gives an overview about NO_x emission formation.

2.1 Overview of NO_x emission formation

NO_x is a common term for the various nitrogen oxides produced during burning. These oxides are highly reactive gasses. The most important nitrogen oxides are nitric oxide (NO) which called nitrogen oxide, nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) and dinitrogen monoxide (N₂O) or nitrous oxide.

The main sources of NO_x are motor vehicles and power plants (Figure2.1). Other sources of NO_x are lightening, volcanic activity and oxidation of NH₃. Most of the nitrogen oxides emissions are NO (95% by volume) and NO₂ (5–10% volume)(Chung, Pillai et al. 2009).

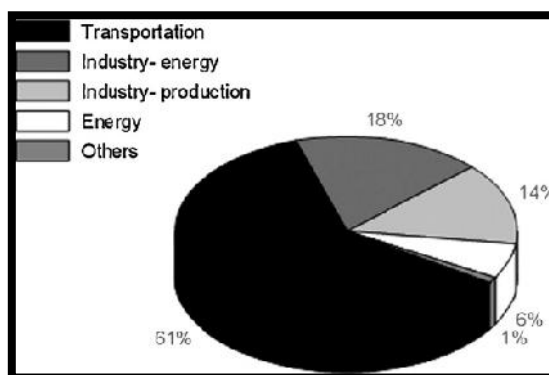


Figure 2.1Major sources of NO_x emission (Chung, Pillai et al. 2009)

These nitrogen oxides react with oxygen in the air to produce ozone, which is an irritant. When dissolved in water and atmospheric moisture, the result is nitric acid and acid rain respectively. Acid rains can cause negative affects to the environment by damaging both trees and entire forest ecosystems and to people and animals through transfer of poisonous substances to the food chain.

Also, NO_x react with ammonia, moisture, and other compounds to form small particles. These small particles penetrate deeply into sensitive parts of the lungs and can cause or worsen respiratory disease, such as emphysema and bronchitis, and can aggravate existing heart disease, leading to increased hospital admissions and premature death.

NO_x emissions are formed through three main mechanisms during combustion processes(Normann, Andersson et al. 2009):

2.1.1 Thermal NO_xformation

Thermal NO_xis formed through reaction of nitrogen and oxygen present in the combustion air at high temperatures following the mechanism(Gómez-García, Pitchon et al. 2005):



The planned mechanism involves a chain reaction of O^* and N^* (Eqs. (1) & (2)). It was found that the quantity of NO produced in a combustion process is related to the quantity of O_2 and N_2 in the combustion products and to the heat of combustion, but it is not related to the nature of the fuel. The rate of NO production is given with good accuracy by Zeldovich mechanism as following:

$$\frac{d[NO]}{dt} = 2k[O^*][N_2] \quad (3)$$

Miller and Bowman (1989) suggested a value

$$k = 1.8 \times 10^{11} \exp\left(-\frac{3837}{T}\right) m^3 kmole^{-1} s^{-1} (T \text{ in } K).$$

As indicated, the rate of NO formation increases exponentially with temperature and, certainly, oxygen and nitrogen must be available for thermal NO_x formation. Therefore, thermal NO_x formation is rapid in high temperature lean zones of flames. Eqs. (3) Shows that the formation of NO is essentially controlled by reaction (1). It also reveals the importance of both atomic oxygen concentration and temperature.

When exhaust gases are vented to the atmosphere, the conversion of NO to NO_2 occur at low temperature. The following equation represents this reaction:

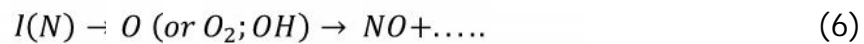


The ratio of NO/NO_2 for nitrogen oxides passing into polluted atmosphere is equal to 10/1, values calculated from rate constants between 400 and 600 K (Gómez-García,

Pitchon et al. 2005). However, in the presence of air, the ratio between NO and NO_2 could change because of thermodynamic equilibrium.

2.1.2 Fuel NO_x formation

Fuel NO_x arises from the oxidation of nitrogen bound in fuels such as heavy oil, coal, and coke; and its formation reaction can be represented as follows:



Where $C(N)$ denotes the nitrogen in char while $I(N)$ represents nitrogen –containing intermediate species like CN , HCN , NH , and NH_2 . Fuel bound nitrogen (FBN) is converted to fixed nitrogen compounds such as HCN and NH_3 under reducing conditions surrounding the burning droplet or particle. Sequentially, these are readily oxidized to form NO . Among these reactions, the reduction of NO_x over the char surface is quite complex and not yet fully understood (Gómez-García, Pitchon et al. 2005).

2.1.3 Prompt NO_x formation

Prompt NO_x is formed immediately during combustion under fuel -rich conditions. therefore, hydrocarbon fragments (such as C , CH , and CH_2) may react with atmospheric nitrogen to yield fixed nitrogen species such as NH , HCN , H_2CN , and CN as proposed by Fenimore (1972). In sequence, these can be oxidised to NO in the lean zone of the flame.

The prompt mechanism in most flames, particularly those from nitrogen –containing fuels, is responsible for only a small fraction of the total NO_x. Its control is important only when attempting to reach the lowest possible emissions.

Habib et al. (2008) studied the influence of combustion parameters on NO_x production in boiler. The results have shown that the furnace average temperature and *NO* concentration decrease as the excess air factor *k* increases for a given air mass flow rate. However, furnace temperature increases and the thermal *NO* concentration increase sharply as the combustion air temperature increases. The results also show that *NO* concentration reveals a minimum value at around swirl angle of 45° at the exit of the boiler(Habib, Elshafei et al. 2008).Figure 2.2 shows the three routes of NO_xformation(Normann, Andersson et al. 2009) .

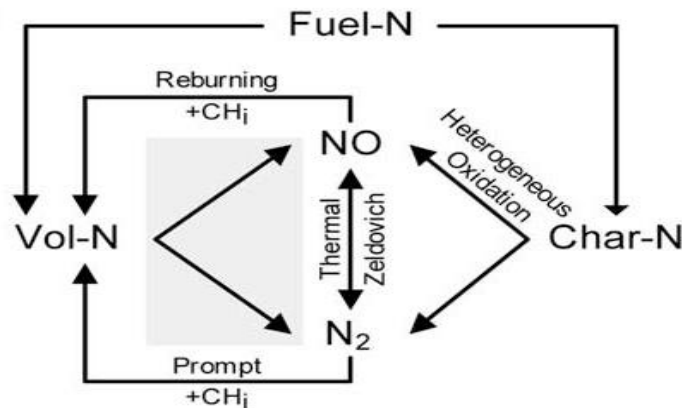


Figure 2.2 Overall mechanisms of NO formation and reduction (Normann, Andersson et al. 2009)

2.2NO_xcontrol technologies

Several technologies have been developed to reduce the emission of NO_x from power generation plants. NO_x reduction technologies are generally divided into two principle methods: primary and secondary methods. Primary methods are techniques applied during combustion by modifying the operational conditions to reduce the NO_x formation this technique called combustion modifications. Flue gas treatments are the secondary methods which can occur both within the boiler and at several points along the path of the flue gas from the boiler to the stack.

2.2.1Combustion modifications

Combustion modifications considered as the most common, commercially available technologies of controlling NO_x emissions from power plants. The basic concept of these techniques is reduction of NO_x formation by effecting moderately simple modifications of operating conditions or by incorporating more elaborate modifications of the combustion facility. Generally Combustion modifications were classified into five categories(Someshwar 2003):

- Low excess air (LEA)
- Staged combustion
- Temperature reduction technologies
- Low NO_x burners (LNB)
- In-furnace destruction (reburning)

- ***Low excess air (LEA)***

Moderate reductions NO_x emissions may be occur by reducing the amount of excess air, and consequently excess oxygen, in the local flame zone. Lower NO_xemissions and higher boiler efficiencies results when operating the burners with low excess air (less than 5% for oil and gas fired boilers). However, the drawbacks of this technique are the limitation by the production of smoke, high CO emissions and increase fouling and corrosion problems in the boiler(Someshwar 2003). The feasible reduction of NO_x by LEA is believed to reach up to 15 %(Ontario 2002).

- ***Staged combustion***

Staged combustion or off-stoichiometric combustion considered as one of the oldest modification techniques for NO_xreduction. The main idea of this technique is to divert a small portion of the combustion air through separate ports located above the burners creates a fuel rich zone. Staged combustion can be carried out by different in- furnace techniques such as: a) Overfire air (OFA) b) Burners out of service (BOOS) c) Biased burner firing (BBF)(Someshwar 2003).

- ***Temperature reduction technologies***

Reducing peak flame temperatures to minimize thermal NO_x formation is the main concept of these technologies. These techniques include:

- a) Flue gas recirculation (FGR)
- b) Reduced air preheated

- c) Steam and water injection
- d) Decreased load

- ***Low NO_x and Ultra Low NO_x Burners (LNB & ULNB)***

Low NO_x burners (LNBs) are designed to control the air and fuel mixing to create low NO_x conditions such as reduced oxygen concentrations available in the initial combustion zone by minimizing the excess air, reduced maximum flame temperatures by reducing intensity of mixing. LNB uses both staged air and staged fuel combustion principles. (Staged air LNBs are simple, inexpensive and efficient NO_x controls that are frequently specified for both new and existing boilers and incinerators). Combustion adjustment with LNBs is used in both coal-fired and gas/oil-fired units. About 50% NO_x reduction is expected by a full LNB retrofit (Someshwar 2003). Ultra low-NO_x burners (ULNB) are second generation LNBs that achieve even greater NO_x reductions (70 – 75%) (Ontario 2002). In comparison to LNBs which use staged fuel to reduce NO_x, ULNBs reduce NO_x by inducing the internal circulation of fuel gas within the heater (Someshwar 2003).

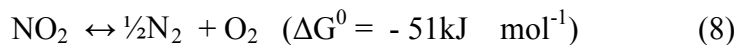
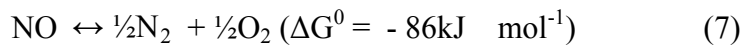
- ***In-furnace destruction (Reburning)***

In this technique which also known as “fuel staging”, a reburn fuel typically supplies from 15 to 25% of the total fuel input. This amount is injected to a second combustion zone downstream of the main flame. Intermediate combustion products in the fuel-rich secondary zone react with NO formed in the primary zone to produce N₂. The reburn zone is followed by additional combustion air to fully burn the remaining hydrocarbons and CO. In this technology, in order to minimize further NO_x formation, Low nitrogen-

containing fuels such as natural gas and distillate oil are typically used for this purpose(Someshwar 2003). NO_x emissions can be reduced by reburning up to 60 %, with operating cost depends on the cost of natural gas. High levels of unburnt carbon in ash may be produced when other fuels such as biomass and coal are used possibly as reburn fuel(Chambers 2001).

2.2.2Flue gas treatment

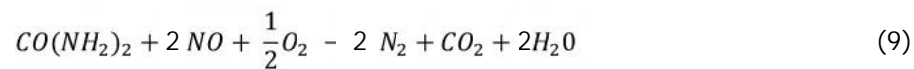
Flue gas treatments are the secondary methods which can occur both within the boiler and downstream of the combustion process. These techniques are preferred for NO_x control because they provide wider range for utility system loads than possible by combustion modifications. This approach involves destroying NO_x or allowing NO_x to react with other reagents. NO and NO₂ are unstable thermodynamically(Gómez-García, Pitchon et al. 2005).



Decomposition reaction of NO has high activation energy (~335 kJ mol⁻¹). Therefore, a catalyst is required to facilitate decomposition reaction(Gómez-García, Pitchon et al. 2005).These technologies include selective non-catalytic reduction (SNCR), and selective catalytic reduction (SCR).

- ***Selective non-catalytic reduction (SNCR)***

Selective non-catalytic reduction (SNCR) is an “add-on control” using a reducing agent, typically ammonia anhydrous, ammonia hydroxide, urea (Eq.9), or aqueous ammonia. These compounds when injected into the combustion products from 900 to 1100 °C will react with NO_x to convert it back to N₂ and H₂O (Chambers 2001).



Although the advantages of not requiring a catalyst and its lower installation cost, this technique does not offer NO_x removal levels better than modern low NO_x burners. Because of this, it is used in regions or equipment where there is no need for a high NO_x removal efficiency. The performance of urea or NH₃ –based SNCR systems is affected directly by six factors. These are: a) inlet NO_x level, b) residence time, c) temperature, d) mixing, e) reagent to NO_x, and f) fuel sulfur content. The optimal temperature window, where an obvious NO_x reduction is achieved, is between 900 and 1,100 °C depending on the composition of the flue gas. Above this desired window temperature ammonia is oxidized to an increasing extent, i.e. NO_x are formed. At lower temperatures the reaction rate is slowed down, causing unreacted ammonia reagent (ammonia slip) which may result in the formation of ammonia salts in the further flue gas path and may lead to secondary problems (Someshwar 2003). In general the reduction of NO_x in this technology is between 30% and 75% (Ontario 2002). This technique is attractive due to its simplicity, catalyst –free system, inexpensive to install, applicability to all types of stationary-fired

equipments and lower capital and operating cost. The schematic of the SNCR concept is elaborated in Figure 2.3.

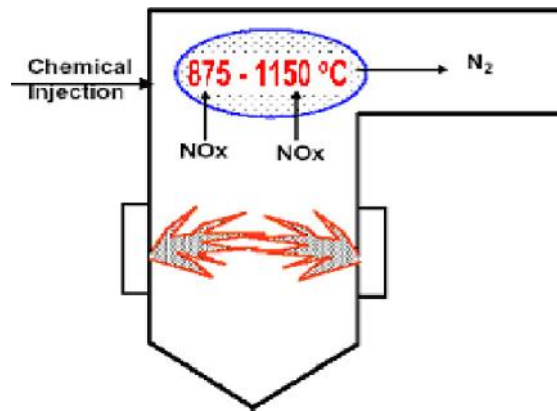
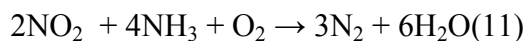
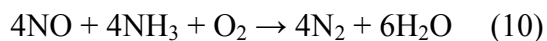


Figure 2.3 The schematic of the SNCR concept (Tayyeb Javed, Irfan et al. 2007)

- ***Selective catalytic reduction (SCR)***

The SCR process has been used commercially in Japan, Germany, and in the U.S. since 1980, 1986, and the 90's respectively. This technology also uses ammonia injection. The essential operating principle of a selective catalytic reduction unit is the reduction of the NO_x content of exhaust gases by ammonia (NH_3) as it passes over a catalytic material at reaction temperatures between 300 to 400 °C. The following selective overall reactions are carried out on the catalytic surface (Someshwar 2003):



The reduction of NO_x by ammonia is promoted by the SCR catalyst to produce N_2 . The main types of catalyst are (Gómez-García, Pitchon et al. 2005):

- (a) Supported noble metal catalysts, e.g., $\text{Pd}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$.
- (b) Base metal oxide catalysts, e.g., those containing vanadium.
- (c) Metal ion exchanged zeolites, e.g., Cu-ZSM-5.

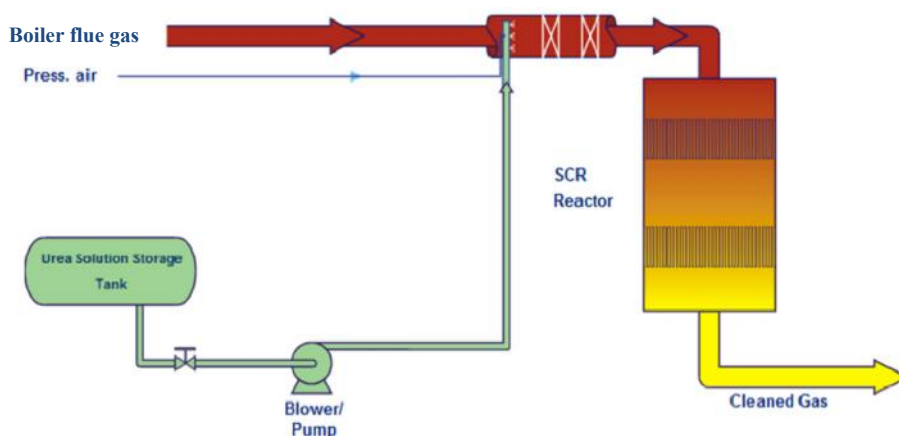


Figure 2.4 The schematic of the SCR concept (Burström, Lundström et al. 2010)

NO_x control efficiencies are typically in the range of 70 to 90%, depending on the type of catalyst, amount of NH_3 injected, the initial NO level, and the age of the catalyst.

Several studies have been conducted that address the control of NO_x emissions from the power generation sector. Mirosław (1998) compared between SCR and SNCR and indicated that NO_x reduction performance of SCR is 70-90% while 30-80% for SNCR. The

operating temperature in case of SNCR is higher (800⁰C -1100 ⁰C) compare to SCR (200⁰C -500⁰C). Ammonia slip in SNCR is between 0.8 -2.5 ppm and 0.4 -1ppm for SCR(Miroslav 1998).

McCahey et al. (1999) have investigated the impact of NO_x reduction technologies upon a supercritical coal power station using the ECLIPSE process simulator .The study applied conceptually to the Amer 9 power station at Geertruidenberg, the Netherlands, which is a 600 MW supercritical Pulverized coal fired power station with low NO_x burners. The technical, environmental and economic evaluations have been performed using the ECLIPSE process simulator. In conclusion, all of the technologies investigated provide considerable reductions in NO_x emissions. The coal-over-coal and natural gas-over-coal reburn systems both produced approximately 50% less NO_x than the base case, however the SCR post combustion method showed the most substantial change, producing a 90% reduction but at an additional electricity cost of 0.21 p/kWh, over the base case(McCahey, McMullan et al. 1999).

Gotham et al. (2001)have studied the impact of various nitrogen oxides (NO_x) emission control scenarios on the price of electricity for the state of Indiana. The scenarios represent different methods for reducing NO_x emissions levels to 0.15 or 0.25 lb/mmBtu. The analyses were performed using a traditional regulation forecasting model that equilibrates between price and demand. The proposed plans used in the development of these scenarios include the use of Low NO_x burners, flue gas recirculation, steam or water injection, and staged combustion. Post-combustion control is done using either catalytic or non-catalytic reduction(Gotham, Holland et al. 2001).

Alnatheer (2006) presented a study to evaluate the environmental impacts of electric system in Saudi Arabia. This study introduced the major environmental costs ranges that are associated with expansion of Saudi Arabia's electric supply system. He considered the importance of Externalities because energy resources impose a variety of costs on society when evaluating alternative plans, so his analysis showed that significant environmental benefits for the Kingdom can be provided by using of renewable energy and energy efficiency resources to provide energy services to the electricity consumers of Saudi Arabia(Alnatheer 2006).

Wang et al. (2007) investigated the feasibility of the application of flameless oxidation (FLOX) and continuous staged air combustion (COSTAIR) technologies to control the combustion temperature and the reaction rate and consequently to control the NO_x emissions. They used ECLIPSE simulation software with two different fuels – coal and biomass (straw) for both FLOX and COSTAIR technologies which are assessed based on a 12MWe, coal-fired, circulating fluidized bed combustion (CFBC) power plant, together with a circulating fluidized bed gasification (CFBG) plus normal burner plant. The result of their study showed that 90% of NO_x emission reduced by using the application of FLOX technology to the plant and are reduced by 80-85 % using the COSTAIR technology , and with less plant efficiencies(Wang, McIlveen-Wright et al. 2007).

Evangelos Tzimas et al. (2007) studied the impact of capture of carbon dioxide (CO₂) from fossil fuel power plants on the emissions of acid gas pollutants which are nitrogen oxides (NO_x) and sulfur oxides (SO_x). This work has been done by estimating the difference in the quantities of acid gas pollutants (NO_x and SO_x) and CO₂ emitted by

fossil fuel fired power plants with and without CO₂ capture. In this study, two power generation options are investigated: natural gas combined cycle plants (NGCC) and pulverized coal (PC) plants. They concluded that the capture of CO₂ is not possible to increase the acid gas pollutants quantities from a power generation plant. In contrast, some NO_x and SO_x will be removed by the low selectivity of the solvents used to capture the CO₂ from the flue gases(Tzimas, Mercier et al. 2007).

Chung et al. (2009) investigated the development of a mediated electrochemical oxidation (MEO) process-based wet scrubbing method for NO and NO₂ abatement from a simulated NO air flue gas mixture using Ag(II)/Ag(I)-mediated electrochemical oxidation. 100% removal of NO and 80% NO_x removal were achieved from simulated NO-air flue gas mixture in a single stage gas scrubbing operation. The overall removal of NO_x was improved to 90% using combination with a second stage gas scrubbing by a simple HNO₃ wash(Chung, Pillai et al. 2009).

Carlin et al. (2009) has studied the potential emission and economic savings from reburning coal with cattle biomass and compares those savings against competing technologies. The profitability of a CB reburning system retrofit on an existing coal-fired plant improved with higher coal prices and higher valued NO_x emission credits. The CB reburn option was the most expensive at Year 1 under base case assumptions. SCR was also found to have the highest capital cost. SNCR was found to have the cheapest capital investment cost, but the emission levels achieved by SNCR were assumed to be poorer than levels achieved by either CB reburning or SCR(Carlin, Annamalai et al. 2009).

Franco et al. (2009) summarized the various NO_x control options with their limit level using coal as fuel. It is noted that the use of LNB with OFA and SCR gives the highest NO_x reduction efficiency (85-95%) while the use of LNB with OFA and LNB with SCR gives the efficiency of 40-60% and 50 -80 % respectively(Franco and Diaz 2009).

Neuffer has studied the NO_x emission levels and cost of various control technologies for 200 MW units operating in the eight Northeast states (USA). It is found that control efficiency range for LNB and/or OFA is 15%-60%. Cost per ton of NO_x removed is in the range of \$200-1,000. NO_x reduction using Natural gas reburning (NGR) for Coal-firing boilers is between 45 and 65% while cost effectiveness per ton of NO_x removed is under \$800/ton when applied to high NO_x emitting cyclone units. For coal fired utility boilers, SNCR can achieve similar emission reductions at slightly higher cost effectiveness as combustion modifications (\$590-1300/ton). SCR can achieve 80 % NO_x reductions from uncontrolled boilers at cost effectiveness of \$1700-5000/ton. However due to limited full scale experience, the cost estimates for SNCR and SCR have a high degree of uncertainty(Neuffer).

Combustion modification controls for oil/gas fired utility boilers have been used since the early 1970s primarily in California. Estimated emission levels for these controls are 0.1 to 0.35 lb/MMBtu or a NO_x reduction of 15%-80%. The cost effectiveness varies from \$100 to \$5100/ton. SNCR is estimated to achieve a 35 % to 50 %NO_x reduction at a cost effectiveness of \$670-2200/ton. SCR is estimated to achieve 65%-85% reduction at cost effectiveness of \$2600-7400/ton(Neuffer).

2.3 Overview of SO_x emission formation

Sulfur oxides (SO_x) are classified as a pollutant because they react with water droplets in the atmosphere to produce sulfuric acid. These acidic pollution compounds return to the earth (lakes, rivers, and soil) in the form of acid deposition, which is the major component in acid rain. The acid is extremely corrosive and harmful to the environment. The combustion of fossil fuels (coal and oil) and the smelting of mineral ores that contain sulfur results in pollutants occurring in the form of SO₂ (sulfur dioxide) and SO₃ (sulfur trioxide), together referred to as SO_x (sulfuroxides). The level of SO_x emitted depends directly on the sulfur content of the fuel (Siudek 2009). In this work, we will be referring for SO_x as SO₂ only.

2.4 SO₂ control technologies

There are a variety of removal technologies that have been reported in the literature for controlling SO₂ emissions in the power plants. Four major technology strategies for SO₂ emissions control have been tracked by the power generation industry (Ba-Shammakh 2011):

1. Tall gas stacks that disperse emissions away from immediate areas;
2. Intermittent controls, which involve routine operational adjustments to reduce power plant SO₂ emissions in response to atmospheric conditions;
3. Precombustion reduction of sulfur from fuels; and
4. Removal of SO₂ from the post-combustion gas stream.

The post-combustion process is the currently accepted means to remove SO_2 after the combustion of fossil fuels as well as fuel switching to lower-sulfur-content fuel. These control technologies, known as flue gas desulfurization (FGD). FGD has been in commercial use in different forms since 1970's. Over the last decade, FGD technique has made considerable progress in terms of efficiency, costs and reliability as SO_2 emission regulations have become more strict in worldwide (Takeshita 1993). Generally FGD can be categorized as :

- Wet scrubbers;
- Spray dry scrubbers;
- Sorbent injection processes;
- Regenerable processes;
- Combined SO_2 / NO_x removal processes.

- ***Wet scrubbing***

The most common FGD process to reduce SO_2 emission is wet scrubbing. In this technique, the sulfur containing exhaust gases are absorbed with hydrated lime or limestone in a counter- flow reactor and the sulfate is oxidized to gypsum by-product. Wet scrubbers produce a large amount of solid waste that must be disposed of by landfill. Wet scrubbers currently occupy 87% of the FGD market due to their potential to produce a gypsum byproduct and the potential to remove up to 99% of the SO_2 (Chambers 2001).

- ***Spray dry scrubbing***

Spray dryers (semi-dry FGD), have the next largest considerable share of the FGD in the market. With the operation of spray dry scrubbers, a lime water slurry is injected into the flue gas to remove SO_2 and as a result calcium sulphite/sulphate is formed. These solid materials are removed along with the flyash in a baghouse. The removal of SO_2 by this technique is reach to 95%(Chambers 2001). Spray dry scrubbers have low operating cost and does not need waste water treatment. However, the ratio of sorbent to SO_2 must be approximately 2.0 for achieving greater than 95% SO_2 removal (Xu, Chen et al. 2000).

- ***Sorbent injection processes***

In these technologies, powdered limestone injected into the combustion products within a temperature window of 750 to 1250 °C. The limestone converts to calcium oxide (CaO) and reacts with sulfur dioxide (SO_2) to form calcium sulphate (CaSO_4). Sorbent injection processes are relatively inexpensive. However, it is appropriate for only about 50% SO_2 reduction at Ca/S mole ratio of 2:1. For low sulfur coal, SO_2 reduction efficiency will be less due to the lower concentration of SO_2 initially in the combustion products (Chambers 2001). Sorbent injection processes can be sub-divided into the categorizes of spray chamber, simple bubbler, spray tower and packed tower.

Several papers have been published to find the best solution to reduce SO_2 emissions from the power generation sector. William (1995) gave an overview of the various technologies available for the control of SO_2 emission in coal power production as well as

a broad overview of SO₂ emission regulation. The logistics and trends in worldwide supply and use of different available steam coal resources are reviewed in relation to the need for limiting and reduction in sulfur emissions (William 1995).

Harmelen et al. (2002) used the energy model TIMER, to introduce add-on abatement technologies, specified in terms of costs and reduction potentials, in order to be able to calculate cost-effective emission reduction strategies for different scenarios and regions in Europe. The results show that add-on technologies to reduce regional air pollution remain necessary throughout the century. The costs to reach the NO_x emission reduction targets in Europe are about three times as high as for SO₂. Mitigation costs averaged over the century by add-on technologies can be reduced by climate measures by 50–70% for SO₂ and around 50% for NO_x. The costs of SO₂ and NO_x mitigation by add-on technology in a world without climate policy are comparable or in some periods even higher than the costs of an integrated mitigation of SO₂, NO_x and CO₂ emissions if a reduction of specific costs by learning is, in contrast with energy technologies, not assumed for abatement technologies. So, the costs of SO₂ and NO_x add-on measures avoided by climate policies can outweigh the costs of these climate measures. The total annual costs are in the order of 1 or 2% of the present GDP, depending on the scenario (Van Harmelen, Bakker et al. 2002).

Patsias et al. (2005) studied the performance of a suite of different carboxylic salts of calcium as dual NO_x/SO_x reducing agents. The salts studied include, calcium magnesium acetate (CMA), calcium acetate (CA), calcium formate (CF), calcium benzoate (CB), calcium propionate (CP) and magnesium acetate (MA). Their Experiments were

performed in a down-fired pulverized coal furnace operating at an output of 80 kWth. Results showed that CMA and CP were the best dual NO_x/SO₂ performers followed by CB, CA, MA and CF. CMA and CP showed superior SO₂ capture ability with reductions greater than 70% at Ca/S above 2, around 20% higher than calcium acetate and calcium formate(Patsias, Nimmo et al. 2005).

Wang et al.(2007) proposed a process capable of removing NO_x, SO₂ and mercury simultaneously which utilizes the injection of ozone and assist with a glassmade alkaline washing tower as shown in Figure (2.5) . Results showed that NO and Hg oxidation efficiency improved individually with the increasing amounts of ozone added to the main flow. About 97% of NO and nearly 100% of SO₂ can be removed simultaneously with 360 ppm of ozone addedwith the assistance of washing tower as shown in Figure (2.6)(Wang, Zhou et al. 2007).

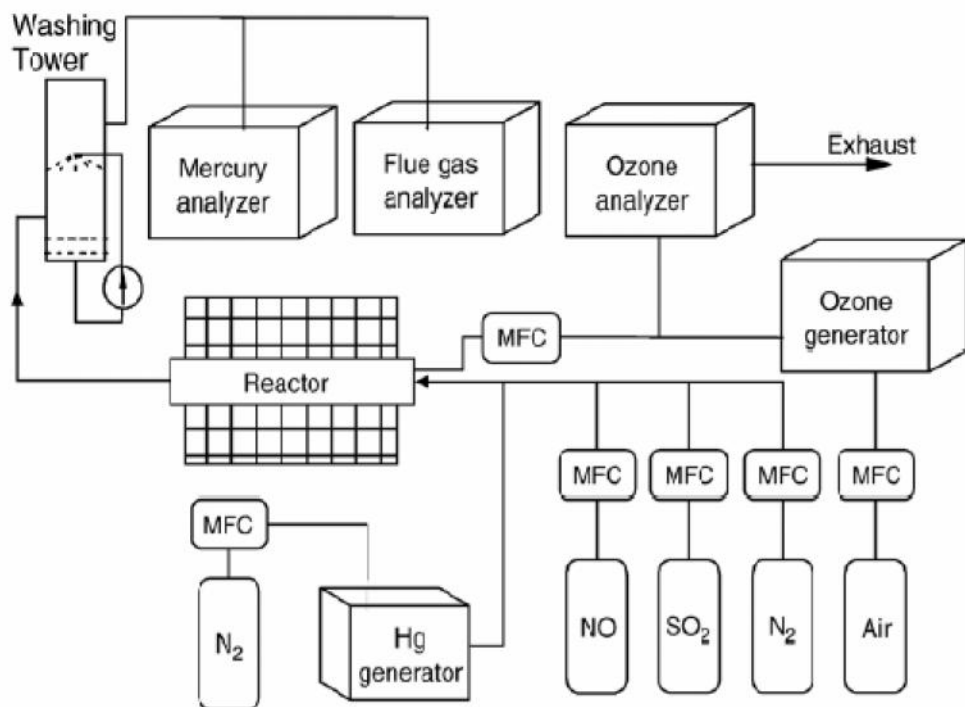


Figure 2.5 the schematic diagram of the experimental apparatus including the ozone injection technology (Wang, Zhou et al. 2007)

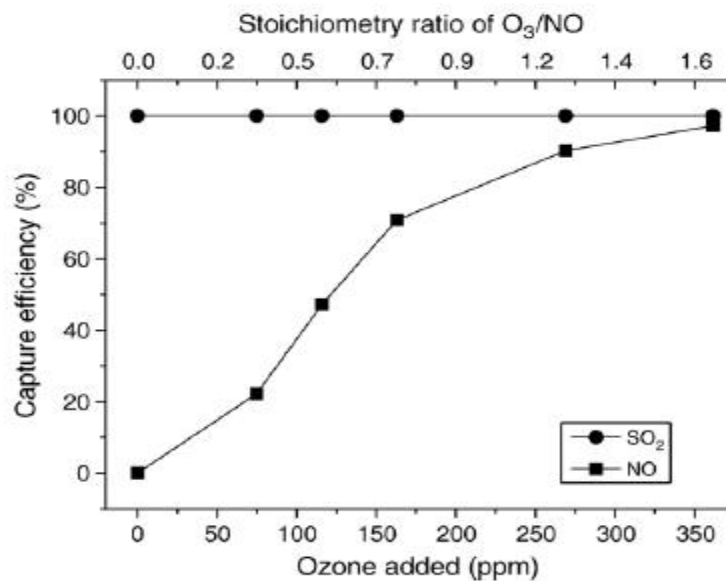


Figure 2.6 Simultaneous capture efficiency of NO, SO₂ behind the washing tower with ozone injection T=423 K (Wang, Zhou et al. 2007)

Mohanty et al. (2008) designed and fabricated a multi-stage fluidized bed reactor which was employed for sorption of sulfur dioxide on the CaO to remove SO₂. They found that the removal of acid gas was enhanced due to the high mass transfer and high gas–solid residence time using the multi-stage fluidized bed reactor at low temperature. The results have indicated that the removal efficiency of the sulfur dioxide was found to be 65% at high solid flow rate (2.0 kg/h) corresponding to lower gas velocity (0.265 m/s), weir height of 70mm and SO₂ concentration of 500ppm at room temperature (Mohanty, Adapala et al. 2009).

2.5 Mathematical Modeling in power generation

Several papers have been published which addressed the cost effectiveness of air emissions control strategies in power generation using mathematical programming approach. Mavrotas et al. (1999) developed a multiple objective mixed integer linear programming (MOLP) model applied to the Greek power sector for identifying the number of and the productivity of each of power units required to satisfy the predictable electricity demand in the future (Mavrotas, Diakoulaki et al. 1999).

Linares and Romero (2000) developed a methodology applied to an electricity planning scenario in Spain with a planning horizon set for the year 2030. The model included the following objectives: (1) total cost; (2) CO₂; (3) SO₂; and (4) NO_x emissions as well as the amount of radioactive waste produced (Linares and Romero 2000).

Yokoyama et al.(2002) formulated a MILP (mixed integer linear programming model) for the structural design problem to determine an optimal structure of energy supply system to match energy demand condition, by expressing load allocation of equipment and capacities by continuous variables, and the selection and on/off status of operation of equipment by binary variables. The effect of equipment performance characteristics on their capacities as well as capital cost, were integrated into the optimization model. The objective was to minimize annual capital cost, and was evaluated as the sum of the annualized capital and operational costs of energy purchased(Yokoyama, Hasegawa et al. 2002).

Zhou, Huang et al. developed ES-APC as an expert support system to assist decision-makers in coal power plants in selecting an efficient and cost effective pollution control system that meets new strict emission standards. A fuzzy relation model and a Gaussian dispersion model were integrated into the expert system. This study provided the key design parameters of ES-APC which provides users with the most cost effective control strategy given complex and uncertain specifications. The result of this study showed that the developed system can help the power plant reduce capital and operation costs of pollution control and decrease risks of environmental damage by selecting suitable control technology(Zhou, Huang et al. 2004).

Zhou et al. (2004) developed a model to predict NO_x emission characteristics of a tangentially fired boiler under various operating conditions and burning different coal using artificial neural networks (ANN) technology(Zhou, Cen et al. 2004).

Hashim et al. (2005) formulated the problem of reducing CO₂ emissions from a fleet of generating stations consisting of coal, natural gas, nuclear, hydroelectric, and renewable energy as a mixed integer linear program (MILP) and implemented in GAMS. Two carbon dioxide mitigation options were considered in their study: fuel balancing and fuel switching (Hashim, Douglas et al. 2005).

Habib et al. (2008) investigated the problem of NO_x emission numerically using a model furnace of an industrial boiler utilizing fuel gas. The studied boiler is 160 MW, gas fired with natural gas, water tube boiler, having two vertically aligned burners. The results have shown that the increase in the excess air factor λ for a given air mass flow rate leads to decrease in the furnace average temperature and NO concentration. Also, the result showed that increasing λ results in a maximum value of thermal NO concentration at the exit of the boiler at $\lambda = 1.2$. Also, furnace temperature increases and the thermal NO concentration increases sharply as the combustion air temperature increases (Habib, Elshafei et al. 2008).

Ba-Shammakh et al. (2007) formulated a mixed integer non-linear programming (MINLP) model for CO₂ reduction from power generation and the model was applied to Ontario power generation (OPG) (Ba-Shammakh, Elkamel et al. 2007).

In (2009), nine types of energy generation options were evaluated using the Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) methodology by Pilavachi et al. With regard to seven criteria. The options use natural gas or hydrogen as a fuel. The criteria used for the evaluation are efficiency, NO_x emissions, CO₂ emissions, capital cost, maintenance and operation costs,

and service life and produced electricity cost. Among 19 scenarios were studied, they proved that the hydrogen combustion turbine, which ranked in 15 of these scenarios is the most dominant electricity generation technology. They expect that the cost of the hydrogen turbine's generated electricity to be very competitive in the future(Pilavachi, Stephanidis et al. 2009).

Chang Zheng et al. (2009) developed a comparative study to reduce NO_x emissions from a coal – fired utility boiler by using various optimization algorithms. The result indicated that NO_x emissions Can be effectively reduced of the coal-fired utility boiler below the legislation requirement of China by the hybrid algorithm by combining support vector regression (SVR) and optimization algorithms with the exception of particle swarm optimization (PSO)(Zheng, Zhou et al. 2009).

Liu et al. (2009) applied an energy technology model, MESSAGE, to analyze the options of key new power generation technologies and their contributions to GHG mitigation in China. Based on this analysis, they expect that in the short term, traditional renewable technologies (including hydropower and wind power), high- efficiency coal power generation technologies and nuclear power will contribute significantly to GHG mitigation while in the middle- and long-term, solar power, biomass energy and carbon capture storage (CCS) will play the main roles in GHG mitigation(Liu, Shi et al. 2009).

Ba-Shammakh (2011) Formulated a multi-period mixed integer non-linear programming (MINLP) model for integrating planning and SO₂ mitigation in the power generation sector and the model was applied to Ontario power generation(Ba-Shammakh 2011).

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGIES

In this chapter, superstructure representation for the energy supply system from different types of power stations is described in details. Also in this chapter, a general optimization model for the power generation is developed. The model consists of an objective function and a set of constraints. The objective of the model is to minimize the electricity cost and at the same time reduce NO_x and SO₂ emissions at minimal cost with respect to different reduction targets.

3.1 Superstructure representation

The power generation supply system from multiple types of power stations is represented in a superstructure manner as shown in Figure (3.1). Electricity is generated from different types of power plants and directly injects it into the grid. It is assumed that only the thermal power plants (fossil fuel plants) generate air emissions and there are no control processes on any existing power stations.

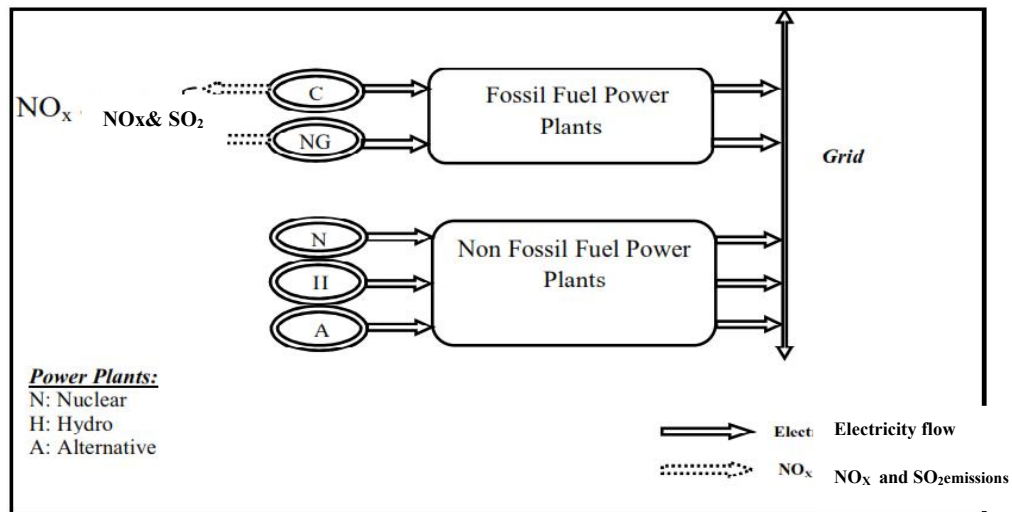


Figure 3.1 Superstructure for power plants

Three different options to reduce SO₂ and NO_x emissions are also considered in this superstructure representation and these are:

1. Fuel balancing.
2. Fuel switching
3. Applying technology.

3.1.1 Fuel balancing superstructure

Fuel balancing option is the optimal adjustment of the generating stations operations to reduce SO₂ and NO_x emissions without making structural changes to the fleet. The target here is to determine the optimal production for each power plant in order to maintain electricity to the grid and reduce the emissions simultaneously. Figure (3.2) shows the fuel balancing where NO_x and SO₂ emissions are decreased by increasing the power

production of existing non-thermal plants and decreasing the power production of existing thermal power plants.

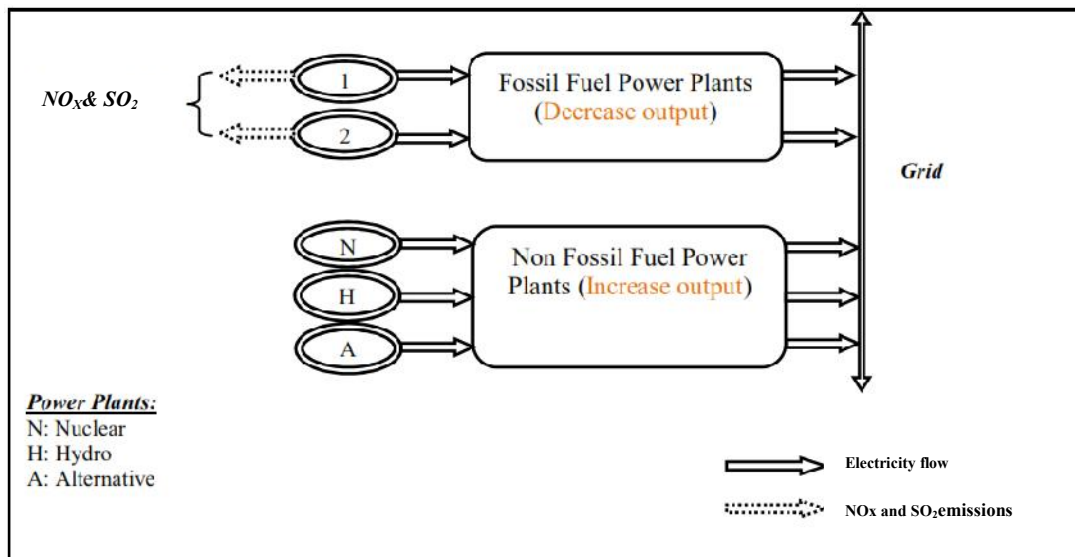


Figure 3.2 Fuel balancing

3.1.2 Fuel switching superstructure

Fuel switching option is the switching from the fuel used in a particular power plant to fuel that emits less SO_2 or NO_x emissions and involves structural changes to the fleet as shown in Figure (3.3).

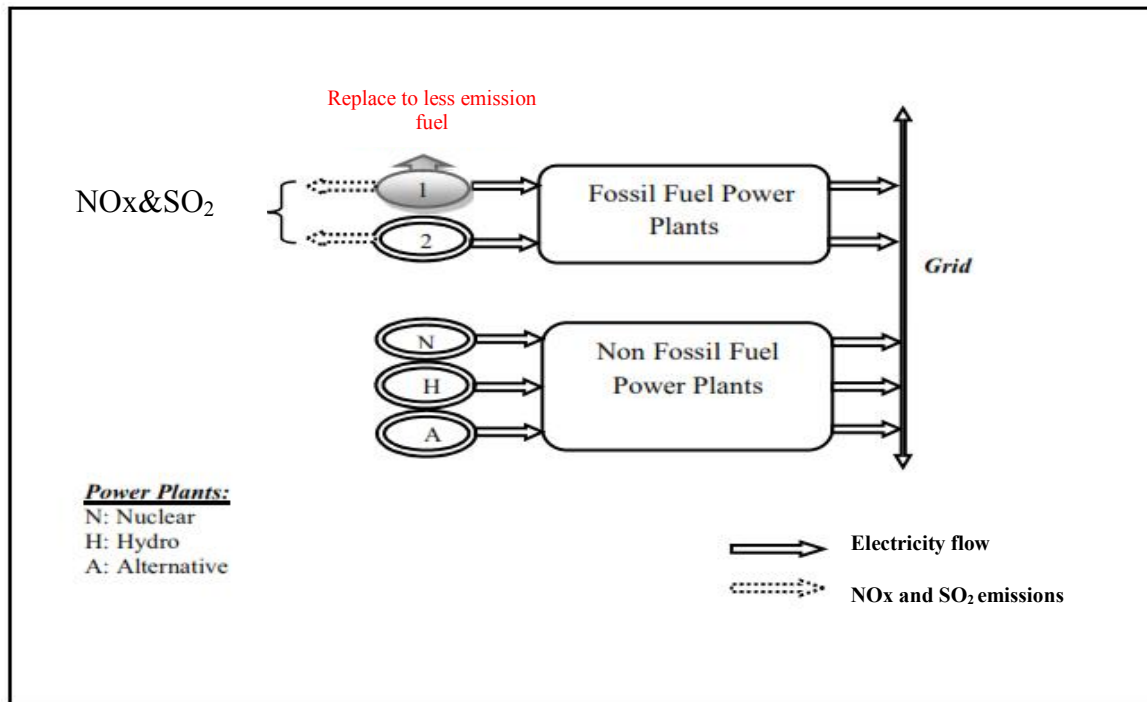


Figure 3.3 Fuel switching

3.1.3 Control technology implementation superstructure

Technology control superstructure shows the integration of possible technologies that can be implemented in power plants to decrease SO_2 or NO_x emissions while maintaining the same electricity to the grid as illustrated in Figure (3.4).

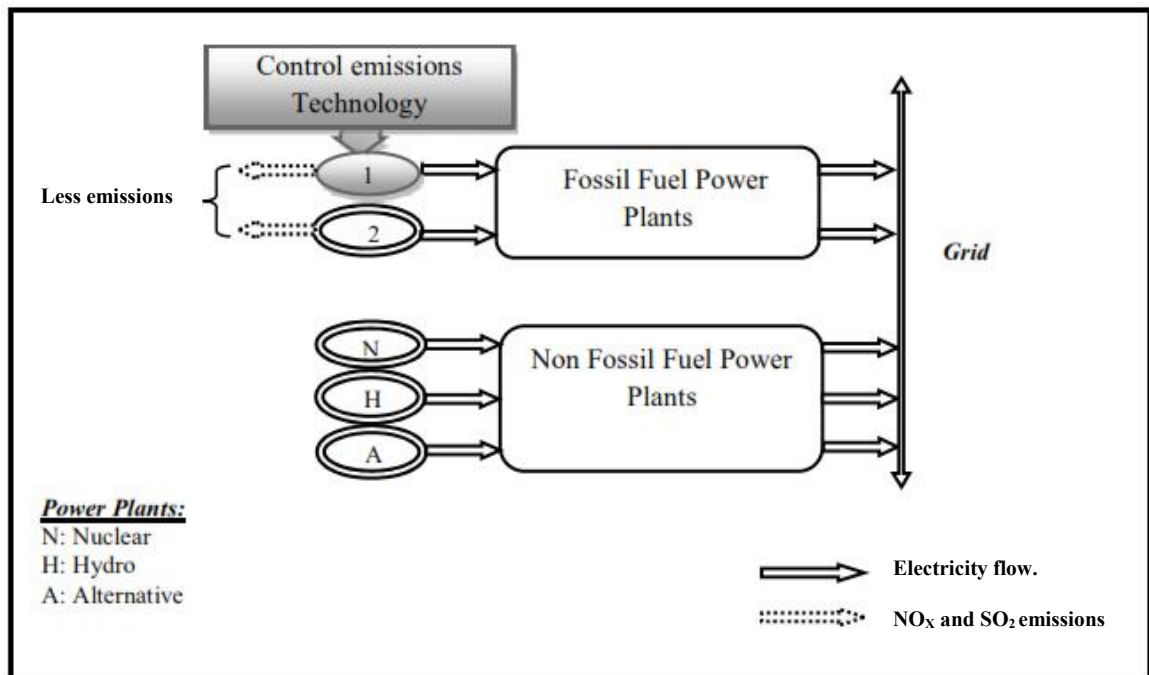


Figure 3.4 Control technologies

3.2 Model formulation

This section describes the mathematical approach. The model is formulated as an optimization problem. It is written in a general format that consists of an objective function to be minimized and a set of constraints which needs to be satisfied at the solution. The objective function (COE) is to minimize the total annualized cost of electricity generated and in mathematical format, it can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Min COE} = & \underbrace{\sum_{P \in F} \sum_u (FC)_{Pu} (EG)_{Pu}}_{\text{Fixed cost of electricity generation from fossil fuel power plants}} + \underbrace{\sum_{P \in F} \sum_u (OC)_{Pu} (EG)_{Pu}}_{\text{Operating cost of electricity generation from fossil fuel power plants}} + \underbrace{\sum_{P \in NF} (FC_{NF})_P (EG)_P}_{\text{Fixed cost of electricity generation from non-fossil fuel power plants}} + \\
& \underbrace{\sum_{P \in NF} (OC_{NF})_P (EG)_P}_{\text{Operating cost of electricity generation from non-fossil fuel power plants}} + \underbrace{\sum_{P \in F} \sum_u (RC)_{Pu} X_{Pu}}_{\text{Retrofit cost for switching from coal to natural gas}} + \underbrace{\sum_{P \in F} \sum_T (FC)_{PT} Y_{PT}}_{\text{Fixed cost of applying technology}} + \underbrace{\sum_{P \in F} \sum_T (OC)_{PT} Y_{PT}}_{\text{Operating cost of applying technology}}
\end{aligned}
\tag{1}$$

Where:

COE : Cost of electricity

P : Power plant

F : Fossil fuel power plants include coal and natural gas.

NF : Non- Fossil fuel power plants.

u : Type of fuel (coal or natural gas).

T : Technology applied to the plant.

$(FC)_{Pu}$: Fixed cost of electricity generation if fuel u used on fossil power plant P (\$/MWh).

$(OC)_{Pu}$: Operating cost of electricity generation if fuel u used on fossil power plant P (\$/MWh).

$(EG)_{Pu}$: Electricity generated from P th power plant if fuel u is used (MWh/yr).

$(FC_{NF})_P$: Fixed cost of electricity generation from P th Non-fossil fuel power plants (\$/MWh).

$(OC_{NF})_P$: Operating cost of electricity generation from P th Non-fossil fuel power plants (\$/MWh).

$(EG)_P$: Electricity generated from P th Non-fossil fuel power plants (MWh/yr).

$(RC)_{Pu}$: Retrofit cost to switch from coal to natural gas (\$/yr).

X_{Pu} : Binary variable either to switch plant P to natural gas or not.

Y_{PT} : Binary variable either to apply technology T in plant P or not.

$(FC)_{PT}$: Fixed cost to apply technology T in plant P (\$/yr).

$(OC)_{PT}$: Operating cost to apply technology T in plant P (\$/yr).

The first and the second terms in the above equation represent the fixed and operating cost of electricity generation from fossil fuel power plants respectively whereas the third and fourth terms explain the fixed and operating cost of electricity generation from non-fossil fuel power plants. Then, a term for switching is included with a binary variable X , which is set to be 0 if no switching, is carried out and 1 in the case of switching from coal to natural gas. The last two terms represent the fixed and operating cost associated with applying technologies on fossil fuel power plants for emissions reduction.

Constraints:

The general model consists of the following sets of constraints:

- ***Power demand***

The total electricity generated from all fossil-fuel and non-fossil-fuel power stations must be equal to or greater than the demand (Dm).

In mathematical format, it can be written as:

$$\sum_{P \in F} \sum_u (EG)_{Pu} + \sum_{P \in NF} (EG)_P + \sum_{P \in I} (EG)_I \geq Dm \quad (2)$$

- ***Fuel selection or plant shut down:***

For each fossil fuel power plant p , the plant either operates with a given fuel or is shut down. For this reason, a binary variable is introduced to represent the type of fuel used in a given fossil fuel plant. $X_{pu} = 1$ if fuel u is used in plant p otherwise it is 0.

$$\sum_u X_{pu} \leq 1 \quad P \in F \quad (3)$$

- ***Upper bound on operational changes***

The adjusted electricity generated from each fossil and non-fossil fuel power plant should be less than or equal to a maximum capacity.

$$(EG)_{pu} \leq (EG)_{pu}^{MAX} X_{pu} \quad P \in F \quad (4)$$

$$(EG)_p \leq (EG)_p^{MAX} \quad P \in NF \quad (5)$$

This constraint set requires that the electricity produced from any plant p should not exceed the maximum capacity of the plant. The first constraint is for fossil-fuel power plants, while the second is for non-fossil-fuel power plants. A binary variable is introduced in each constraint to represent its existence (or nonexistence).

- **Lower bound on operational changes**

These constraints introduce a lower bound for each power plant. The electricity generated from each power plant must be greater than some minimum otherwise the plant will be shut down and a binary variable is introduced in each constraint to represent that.

$$(EG)_{Pu} \geq (EG)_{Pu}^{MIN} X_{Pu} \quad \forall P \in F \quad (6)$$

$$(EG)_P \geq (EG)_P^{MIN} \quad \forall P \in NF \quad (7)$$

- **Technology selection**

A binary variable (Y_{PT}) is introduced in the model to represent whether technology T implemented in power plant p or not. This constraint imposes the fact that no technology should be implemented in a plant that is to be switched from high emission fuel to less emission fuel.

$$\sum_T Y_{PT} + NK \times X_{Pu} \leq NK \quad P \in F \quad (8)$$

Where NK is number of set of technologies T . Furthermore, only one control technology can be installed for a given power plant P :

$$\sum_T Y_{PT} \leq 1 \quad P \in F \quad (9)$$

- ***Emissions constraint***

The total emissions from electricity generation must satisfy a reduction target and it should be equal to or less than a certain limit. Different technologies, T , to control emissions will be implemented in the mathematical model and a binary variable (Y_{PT}) will be introduced to represent existence or not of a certain technology for emissions control.

$$\sum_{P \in F} \sum_u (EM)_{Pu} \cdot (\eta) \cdot (EG)_{Pu} \leq (EM)_{current} \quad (10)$$

Where

$$\eta = \left(1 - \sum_T \varepsilon_{PT} Y_{PT} \right)$$

Where ε_{PT} : efficiency of applying technology T to power plant P .

- ***Non-negativity constraints***

The electricity produced from all power plants must be greater than zero.

$$(EG)_{Pu} \geq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad (EG)_P \geq 0 \quad (11)$$

The resulting model is formulated as a MINLP because of a constraint set where there is a multiplication of a decision variable $(EG)_{pu}$ and a binary variable (Y_{PT}) in the emissions term.

The general form of a MINLP is

Minimize $f(EG, x, y)$

Subject to $h(EG, x, y) = 0$

$g(EG, x, y) \leq 0$

$EG \in \mathbb{R}^n$ (EG is a vector of continuous variables)

$x \in X = \{0, 1\}$ (x is a vector of binary variables)

$y \in Y = \{0, 1\}$ (y is a vector of binary variables)

The model has been linearised and proved to have the same optimum as the original one.

Therefore, we solved the model as mixed integer linear programming (MILP).

It was implemented in GAMS (Generalized Algebraic Modeling System). It is usually employed as the environment to solve such problems. GAMS, originally developed by the World Bank for large scale economic modeling, is a flexible system that is ideal for developing large scale problems. The solver used is CPLEX.

- **Model linearization**

The emission constraint (10) is the one that causes non-linearity to the optimization model. The nonlinear term is:

$$\sum_{P \in F} \sum_u (EM)_{Pu}(\eta)(EG)_{Pu} \quad (1A)$$

Where

$$\eta = \left(1 - \sum_T \varepsilon_{PT} Y_{PT} \right)$$

Hence, the non-linearity is due to the product $[Y_{PT}(EG)_{Pu}]$

$$\text{Let } \gamma_{PuT} = Y_{PT}(EG)_{Pu} \text{ (non-linear term)} \quad (2A)$$

The term can be linearized by adding these constraints to the model:

$$0 \leq \gamma_{PuT} \leq (EG)_{Pu} \quad (3A)$$

$$(EG)_{Pu} - (EG)_{Pu}^{MAX} (1 - Y_{PT}) \leq \gamma_{PuT} \leq (EG)_{Pu}^{MAX} Y_{PT} \quad (4A)$$

Where $(EG)_{Pu}^{MAX}$ is a maximum upper bound on $(EG)_{Pu}$.

We can proof that as following:

From equation (2A), we want to show that $\gamma_{PuT} = 0$ if $Y_{PT} = 0$

and $\gamma_{PuT} = (EG)_{Pu}$ if $Y_{PT} = 1$

Case 1: (*No technology is selected*)

$$\underline{Y_{PT} = 0}$$

Since $\gamma_{PuT} = Y_{PT}(EG)_{Pu}$ (from eqn 2A),

Then, $\gamma_{PuT} = 0$

Equation (3A) becomes:

$$0 \leq \gamma_{PuT} \leq (EG)_{Pu} \quad (5A)$$

And equation (4A) becomes:

$$(EG)_{Pu} - (EG)_{Pu}^{MAX} \leq \gamma_{PuT} \leq 0 \quad (6A)$$

From equations (5A) and (6A), γ_{PuT} will be chosen to be zero.

Case 2: (*technology is selected*)

$$\underline{Y_{PT} = 1}$$

Since $\gamma_{PuT} = Y_{PT}(EG)_{Pu}$ (from equation 2A),

Then, $\gamma_{PuT} = (EG)_{Pu}$

Equation (3A) becomes:

$$0 \leq \gamma_{PuT} \leq (EG)_{Pu} \quad (7A)$$

And equation (4A) becomes:

$$(EG)_{Pu} \leq \gamma_{PuT} \leq (EG)_{Pu}^{MAX} \quad (8A)$$

From equations (7A) and (8A), γ_{PuT} is set equal to $(EG)_{Pu}$. In summary, adding the two constraints (equation 3A and 4A) to the model will lead to:

$$\gamma_{PuT} = 0 \text{ if } Y_{PT} = 0$$

$$\text{and } \gamma_{PuT} = (EG)_{Pu} \quad \text{if } Y_{PT} = 1$$

3.3 Emissions estimation from Combustion

This section gives a general procedure for the estimation of NO_x and SO₂ from fuel combustion.

Fuel combustion that emits NO_x and SO₂ emissions depend upon the amount of fuel consumed and the carbon content of the fuel. To estimate emissions from fuel combustion, the following equation has been adopted.

$$\text{Emissions(NO}_x \text{ or SO}_2\text{)} = \text{Fuel consumption} \times \text{EF}$$

EF is emission factor for a specific fuel. These factors have been obtained and developed from a number of studies conducted by Environment Canada, the United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and other organizations.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The general mathematical model developed in Chapter three for power generation was illustrated on different case studies. This model was applied into real case studies taken from Ontario Power Generation (OPG) to find the best strategy to reduce certain air emissions at minimum cost while maintaining electricity demand. Three different mitigation options are considered and these are:

- 1) Fuel balancing (optimal adjustment of the operation of existing generating stations to reduce air emissions without making structural changes to the fleet).
- 2) Fuel switching (switching from fuel that emits more emissions to less emissions fuel).
- 3) Implementing different technologies to reduce air emissions.

Currently, Ontario Power Generation (OPG) operates five thermal power plants: Four of these stations are fuelled by coal and one is dual-fuelled by oil and natural gas, 65 hydroelectric, 3 nuclear and 2 wind power turbines. As December 31, 2011, OPG had an in-service capacity of 19,051 MW. There are 13 fossil fuel boilers at the 5 fossil fuel stations: 2 boilers at Lambton (LMB), 4 boilers at Nanticoke (NTK1–NTK4), 1 boiler at Atikokan (ATK), 4 boilers at Lennox (LNX1–LNX4), and 2 boilers at Thunder Bay (THB1–THB2). Currently, the 4 boilers at Lennox are running on natural gas. Figure 4.1 shows the existing OPG fossil fuel power plants (13 boilers) and their associated electricity generated.

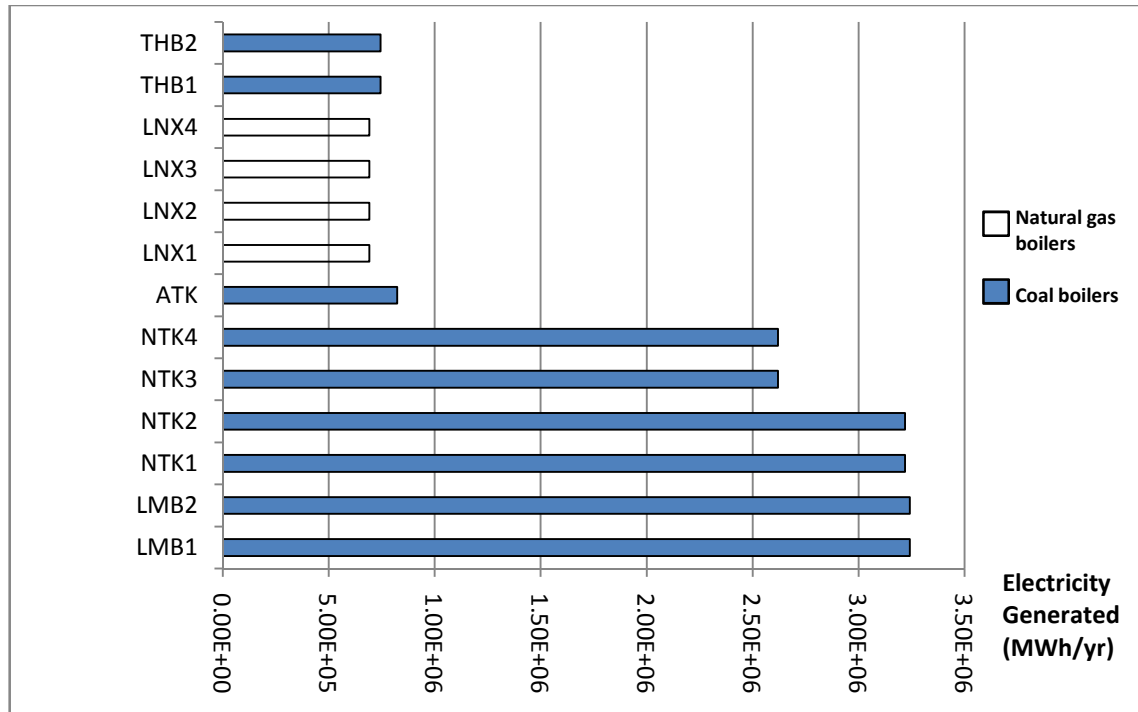


Figure 4.1 Electricity generated from OPG power plants (13 boilers)

This research focuses on two air emissions that are considered significant for power generation sector. These are namely NO_x and SO₂.

Two case studies (1 and 2) are illustrated in the following sections: case study (1) considers NO_x emission for Ontario power generation and case study (2) which was run independently from the previous case considers SO₂ emission for the same sector.

4.1 Case study 1

In this case study, NO_x emission will be considered for Ontario power generation. The objective of this study is to determine the best strategy or mix of strategies for the electricity sector to meet a given NO_x reduction target at a minimum cost while maintaining a desired production level. Table 4.1 shows a general view of OPG fossil fuel generating stations and NO_x emission. Since non fossil fuel power plants are assumed not to emit NO_x, the main focus is on electricity generated from the fossil fuel power plants. The operational costs for nuclear, hydroelectric, and wind turbine were estimated to be \$43.2, \$6.75, and \$5.4/MWh, respectively. The nominal conditions for OPG's existing fleet of power plants are:

- Total electricity generation: 11884 MW
- Total NO_x emissions: 37346 ton/yr
- Total operational cost: 3.086×10^9 \$/yr.

Table 4.1 OPG fossil fuel generating stations and NO_x emission (Atten 2004)

<i>Generating stations</i>	<i>Fuel used</i>	<i>Installed capacity (MW)</i>	<i>Number of Units</i>	<i>Operational cost (\$/MWh)</i>	<i>NO_x emission rate (ton/MWh)</i>	<i>Current electricity generated (MWh/yr)</i>
<i>Nanticoke 1 (NTK1)</i>	Coal	500	2	40	0.00172	3219300
<i>Nanticoke 2 (NTK2)</i>	Coal	500	2	40	0.00172	2619567

<i>Lambton (LMB)</i>	Coal	500	2	34	0.00147	3242295
<i>Lennox (LNX)</i>	Natural gas	535	4	81	0.00109	690500
<i>Thunder Bay (THB)</i>	Coal	155	2	40	0.0021	745000
<i>Atikokan (ATK)</i>	Coal	215	1	40	0.00193	823000

NOx emissions were calculated based on emission factors taken from North American Power Plant Air Emissions report (Atten 2004). Three mitigation options to reduce NOx emission considered here are fuel balancing, fuel switching and applying different technologies to control NOx emission for coal power plants. Three technologies are considered in this case study which are: Low NOx burners (LNB) with about 35% efficiency, selective non-catalytic reduction (SNCR) with about 50% efficiency and selective catalytic reduction (SCR) with about 85% efficiency. The costs effectiveness of these technologies as reported in the literature are: \$1200, \$1550 and \$2000 /ton of NOx removed respectively. The cost for each technology is amortized with a 10-year lifetime and a 5% annual interest.

The power generation supply system from different types of power stations is represented in a superstructure manner as shown in Figure 4.2. Three different options to reduce NOx emissions are also considered in this superstructure representation as shown in Figures 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5 which are fuel balancing, fuel switching and applying LNB, SNCR or, SCR technologies.

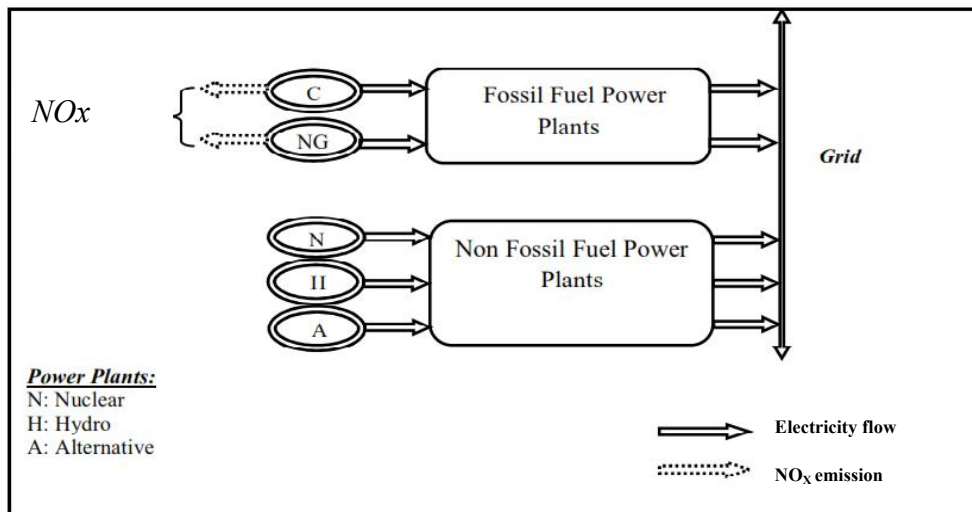


Figure 4.2 Superstructure for power plants

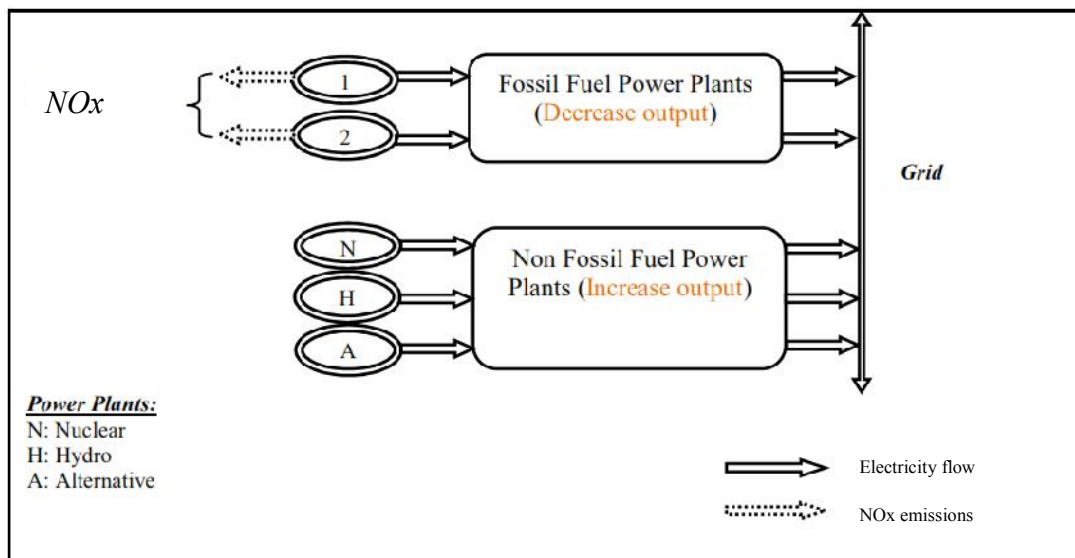


Figure 4.3 Fuel balancing

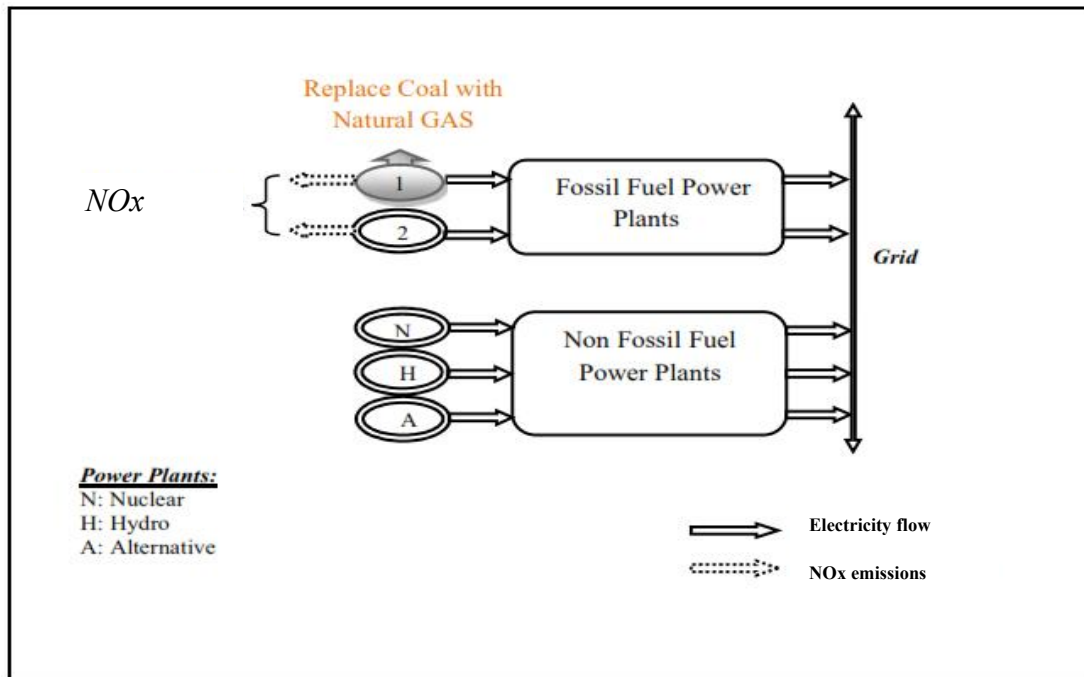


Figure 4.4 Fuel switching

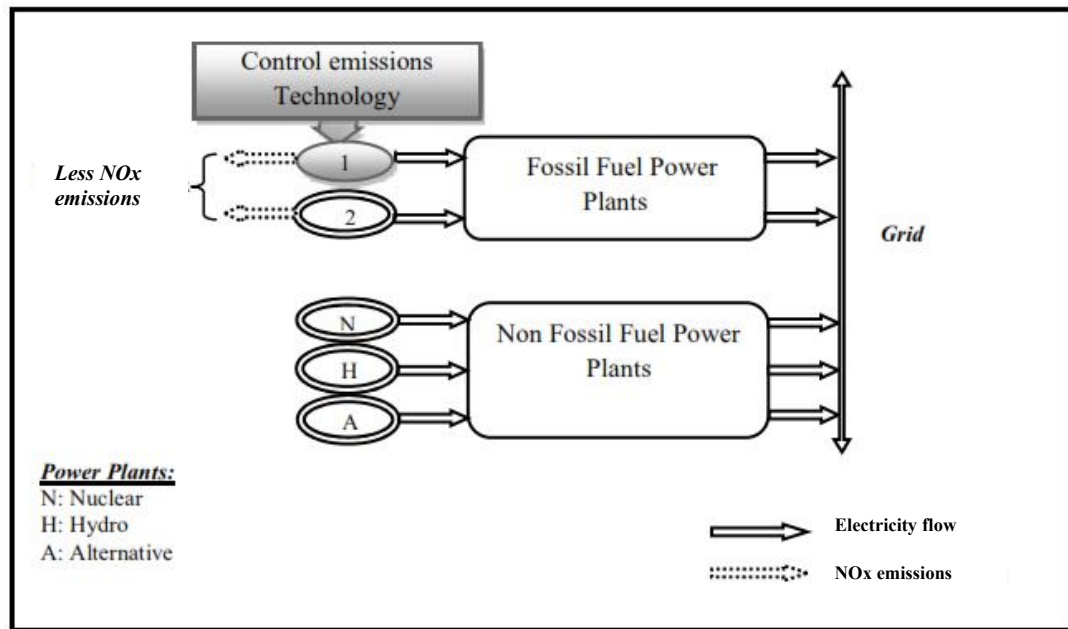


Figure 4.5 control technologies

The initial model was MINLP and then it is being normalized. The linearised model discussed earlier in chapter 3 was coded into the General Algebraic Modeling System (GAMS) and solved using the mixed integer linear programming (MILP) solver. Two cases were studied in this case study; case (1.A) will consider two options which are fuel balancing and switching. For case (1.B), all three options will be considered.

4.1.1 Case 1.A

The options considered in this case for the NO_x reduction are balancing and fuel switching only.

The optimization result for the base case (0% NO_x reduction) shows that all non fossil fuel power plants have to operate with 1% (maximum allowable value) higher than the nominal capacity factor. The only plant for which the capacity factor decreases is the

Lennox generating station (natural gas) in which the capacity factor decreased by about 32%. This result may appear to be expected since the Lennox station is fuelled by natural gas. However, the reason why the productivity of Lennox must be decreased is because this plant uses the most expensive fuel in OPG's fleet. The reduction in NOx emissions is achieved by increasing slightly the power production of the non-thermal power plants (hydro-electric, nuclear and wind) and by decreasing significantly the power production of Lennox. The productivity of the other fossil fuel plants was increased by only a small increment. The overall effect of the adjustments in the capacity factors is to reduce the overall NOx emissions. The model tries to satisfy demand of each station by adjusting the operation of existing boilers e.g., increasing productivity from existing non thermal power plants and decreasing productivity from some existing thermal power plants (fuel balancing) as shown in Figure 4.6. Base case is also shown in the Figure for comparison.

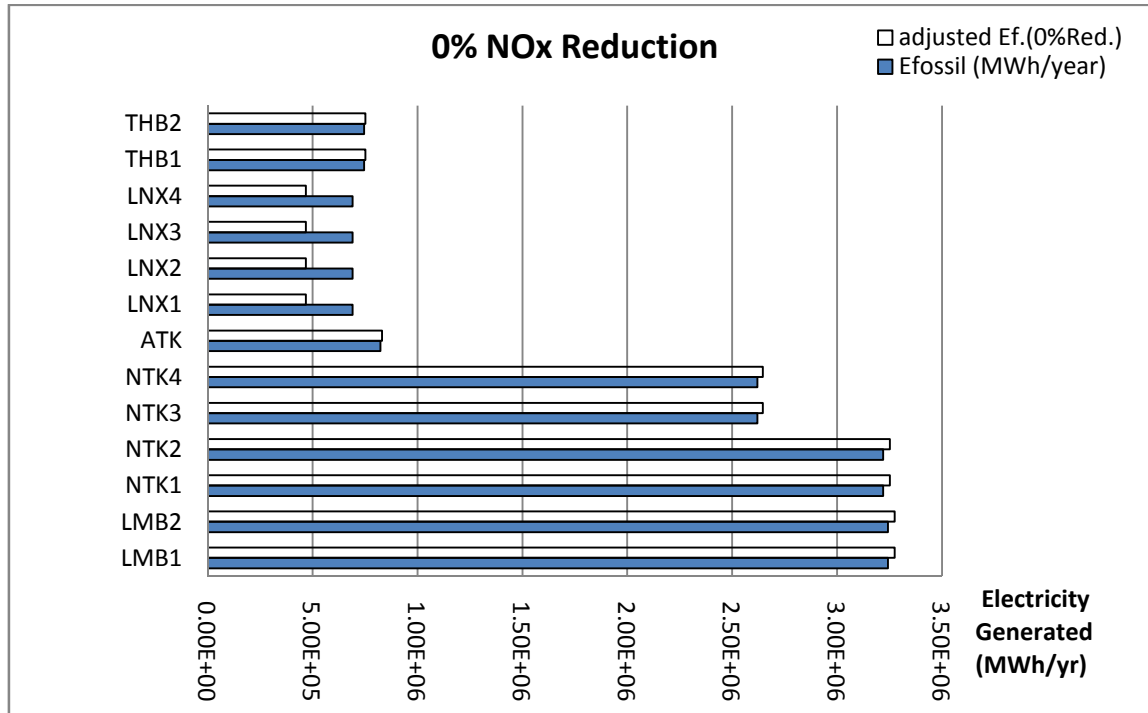


Figure 4.6 Electricity generation strategy for 0% NOx reduction

Figure 4.7 shows the optimization results for the case of 5% NOx reduction target. For this case, we noticed that the model chose to switch one unit (THB1) from coal to natural gas. The results show that the capacity factors for three of the natural gas boilers (LNX1, LNX2 and LNX4) have been reduced by 32% and one coal fired boiler (THB2) by 45%.

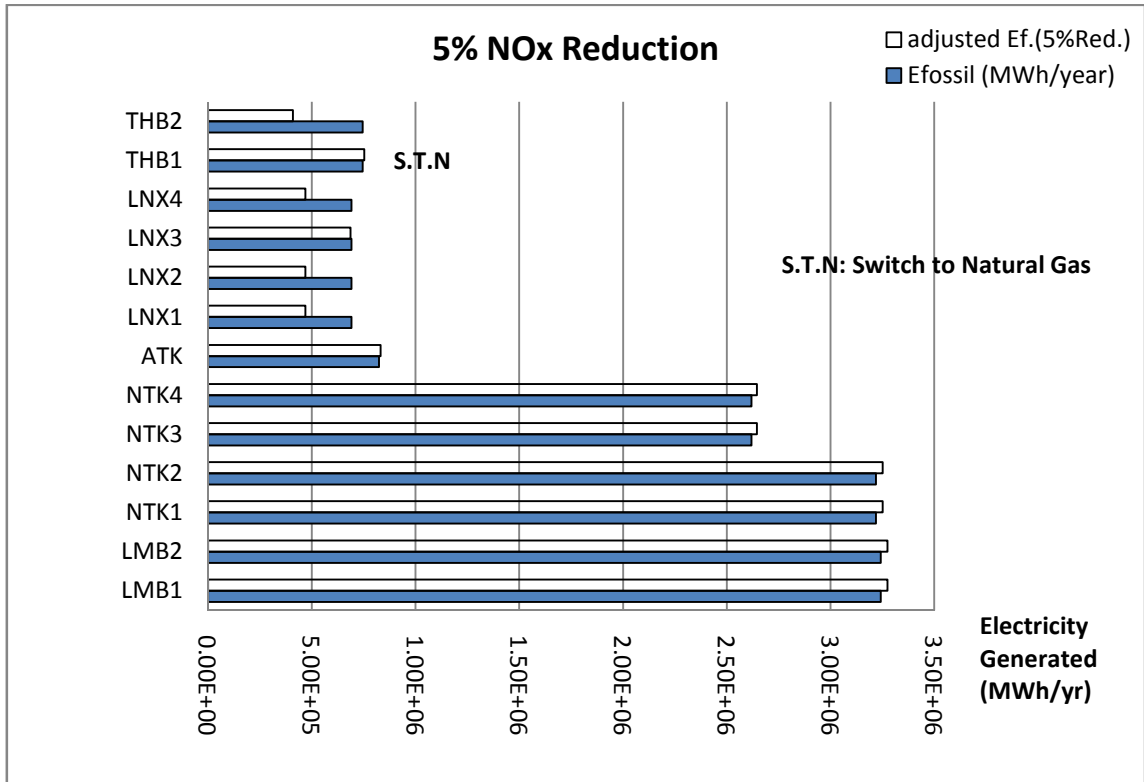


Figure 4.7 Electricity generation strategy for 5% NOx reduction

In order to achieve more than 5% NOx reduction, the model chose to switch more than one unit. This involves fleet changes from coal to natural gas. As seen in Figure 4.8, for example, the optimization results show that in order to achieve a 10% NOx reduction while maintaining the electricity to the grid at minimum cost, the power production for all natural gas boilers have been reduced by 32%, and one boiler at Nanticoke (NTK4), two boilers at Thunder Bay (THB1 and THB2) need to be switched from coal to natural gas. The capacity factors for the non-fossil fuel generating stations should be increased by 1% which is always the case.

In addition to switching of one boiler at Nanticoke (NTK4) from coal to natural gas, the results also showed that the capacity factor of this power plant should be decreased by about 4%.

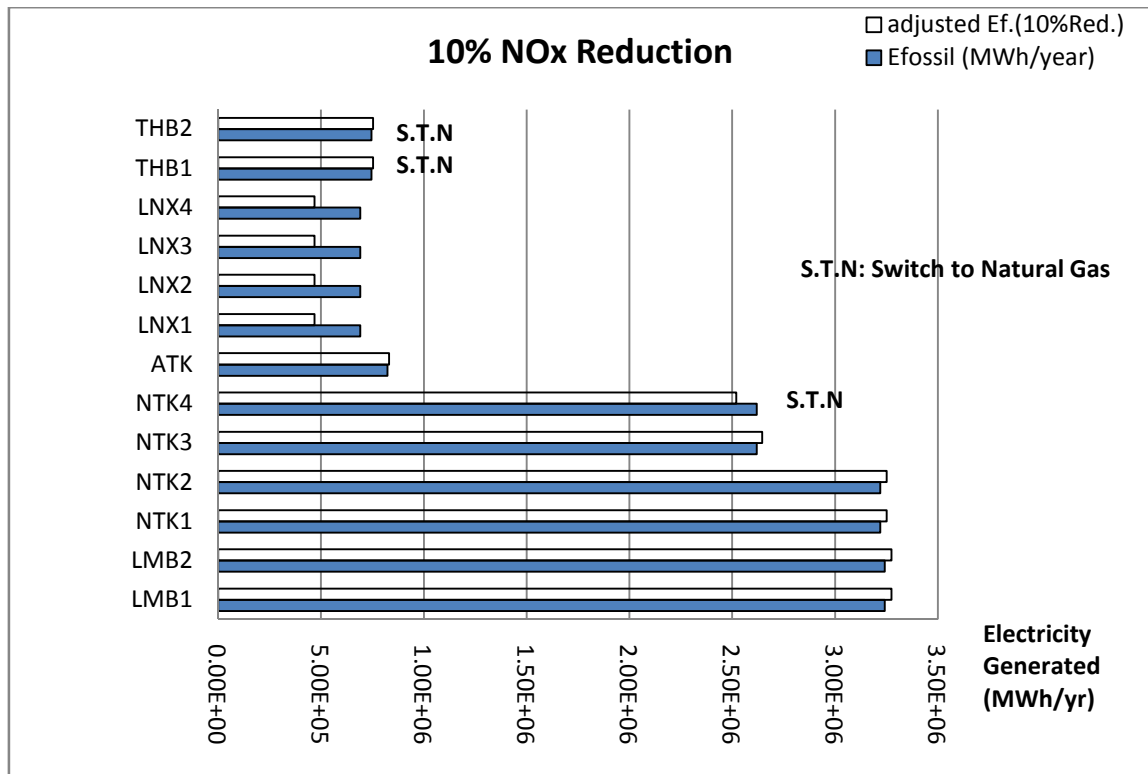


Figure 4.8 Electricity generation strategy for 10% NOx reduction

As higher NOx targets are required, the optimizer will choose more coal boilers to be switched to natural gas. For the case of 30% NOx reduction (see Figure 4.9), the results show that all boilers which are running by coal need to be switched to natural gas except one boiler at Lambton (LMB2). The result also shows that the capacity factor for all natural gas boilers at Lennox power plant have been reduced by about 32%, and also the same thing is true for Atikokan power plant (ATK) by about 14%. The electricity generation from all non fossil fuel power plants has also been increased by 1%.

We noticed that if we go beyond 30% NOx reduction, switching will not be a good option and we have to implement another option to reach to a higher reduction target.

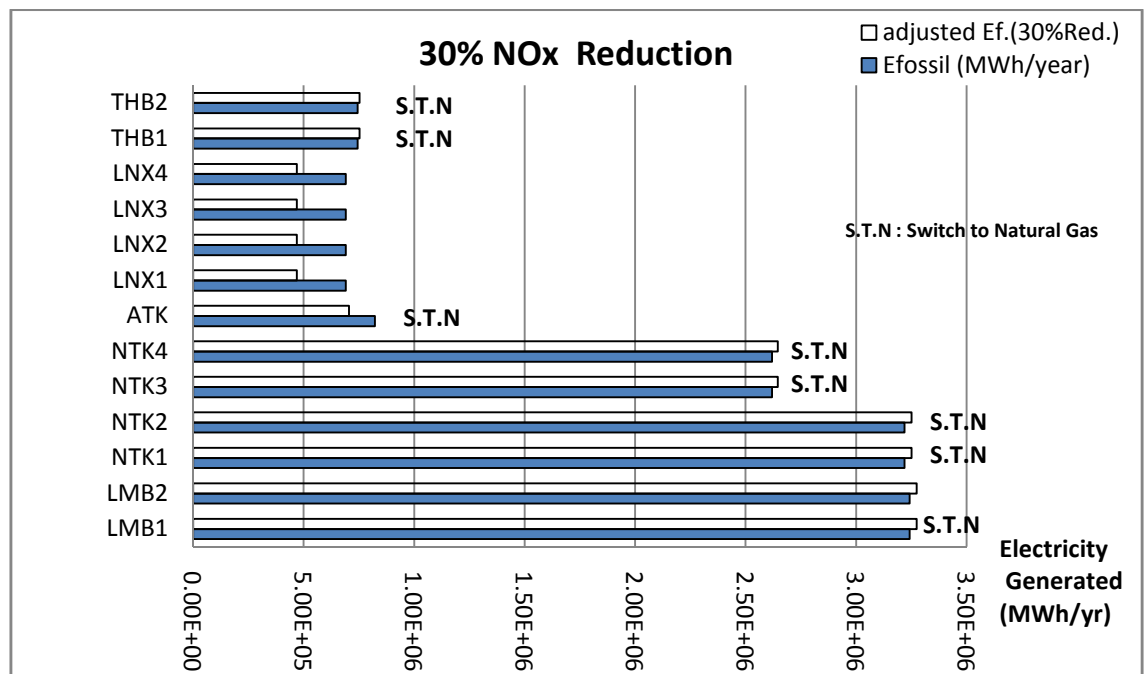


Figure 4.9 Electricity generation strategy for 30% NOx reduction

Table 4.2 below summarizes the results for case (1.A). It shows that whether the units (boilers) in the plants need to be switched to natural gas or not for different reduction targets. The full black squares represent coal units while open circles represent natural gas units. However, the multiplication sign represents the switching option.

Table 4.2 A summary of the optimization results for case 1.A

<i>Plant</i>	<i>Base case</i>	<i>0% NO_x Reduction</i>	<i>5% NO_x Reduction</i>	<i>10% NO_x Reduction</i>	<i>30% NO_x Reduction</i>
LMB1	■	■	■	■	×
LMB2	■	■	■	■	■
NTK1	■	■	■	■	×
NTK2	■	■	■	■	×
NTK3	■	■	■	■	×
NTK4	■	■	■	×	×
ATK	■	■	■	■	×
LNX1	○	○	○	○	○
LNX2	○	○	○	○	○
LNX3	○	○	○	○	○
LNX4	○	○	○	○	○
THB1	■	■	×	×	×
THB2	■	■	■	×	×

■ : Coal

○ : Natural Gas

× : Switch to Natural gas

Table 4.3 shows the total cost and NO_x emission for each reduction target. It is clear that increasing the target of NO_x reduction will give a higher total annualized cost since it involves fleet changes from coal to natural gas (switching).

Table 4.3 Total cost and total NO_x emission at different reduction targets for case 1.A

<i>% NO_x Reduction</i>	<i>Total cost (\$/yr)</i>	<i>total NO_x emission (ton/yr)</i>	<i>cost increased %</i>
0	3.04E+09	36722.152	
5	3.06E+09	35478.719	0.78
10	3.12E+09	33400.556	2.58
30	3.37E+09	25700.332	10.96

4.1.2 Case 1.B

All three mitigation options to reduce NO_x emission are considered here which arebalancing, fuel switching and implementing different technologies.

The same optimization results in case 1.A for 0%NO_x reduction when two mitigation options (fuel balancing and fuel switching) considered were obtained here for the case of 0% NO_x reduction when all threemitigation options considered. The results show that all non fossil fuel power plants have to operate with 1% higher than the nominal capacity factor. The only plant for which the capacity factor decreases is the Lennox generating station (natural gas) in which the capacity factor decreased by about 32%.The model tries to satisfy demand of each station by adjusting the operation of existing boilers e.g., increasing production from existing non thermalpower plants and decreasing production from some existing thermal power plants (fuel balancing) as shown in Figure 4.10.

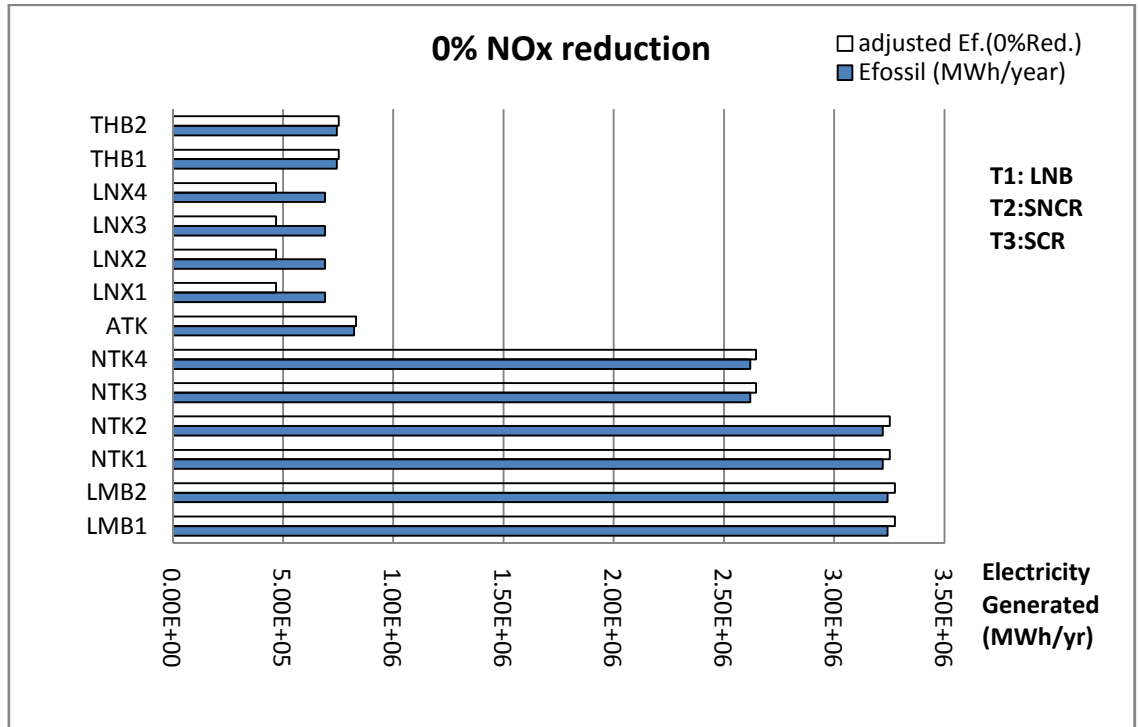


Figure 4.10 Electricity generation strategy for 0% NOx reduction

Figure 4.11 shows the optimization results for the case of 5% NOx reduction target. For this case, we noticed that the model chose to apply selective catalytic reduction (SCR) technology on one unit of Thunder Bay (THB1) power plant and no fuel switching for any plant. The results also show that the capacity factor for all natural gas boilers at Lennox power plant have been reduced by about 32%.

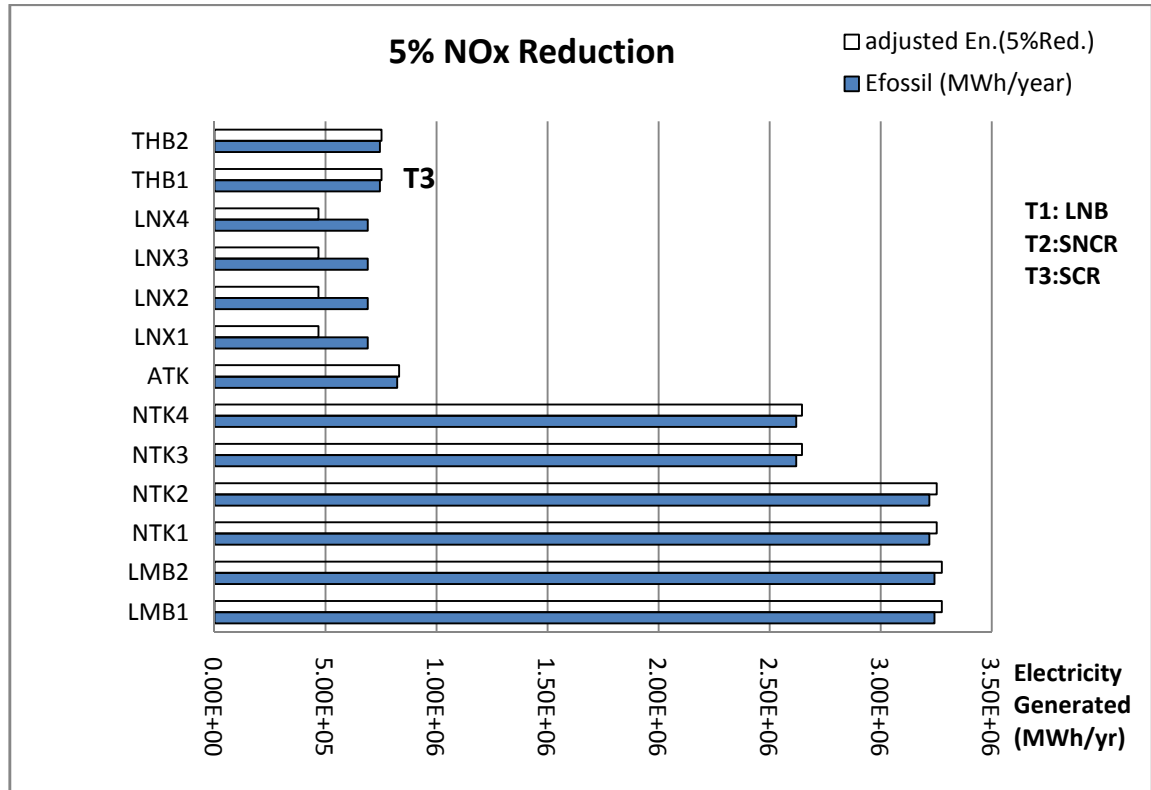


Figure 4.11 Electricity generation strategy for 5% NOx reduction

In order to achieve more than 5% NOx reduction, the optimizer chose to apply one technology on one unit. As seen in Figure 4.12, for 10% NOx reduction, the results show that in order to achieve a 10% NOx reduction while maintaining the electricity to the grid at minimum cost, SCR technology will be installed on one unit of Nanticoke power plant (NTK1). The result also shows that the capacity factor for all natural gas boilers at Lennox power plant have been reduced by about 32%.

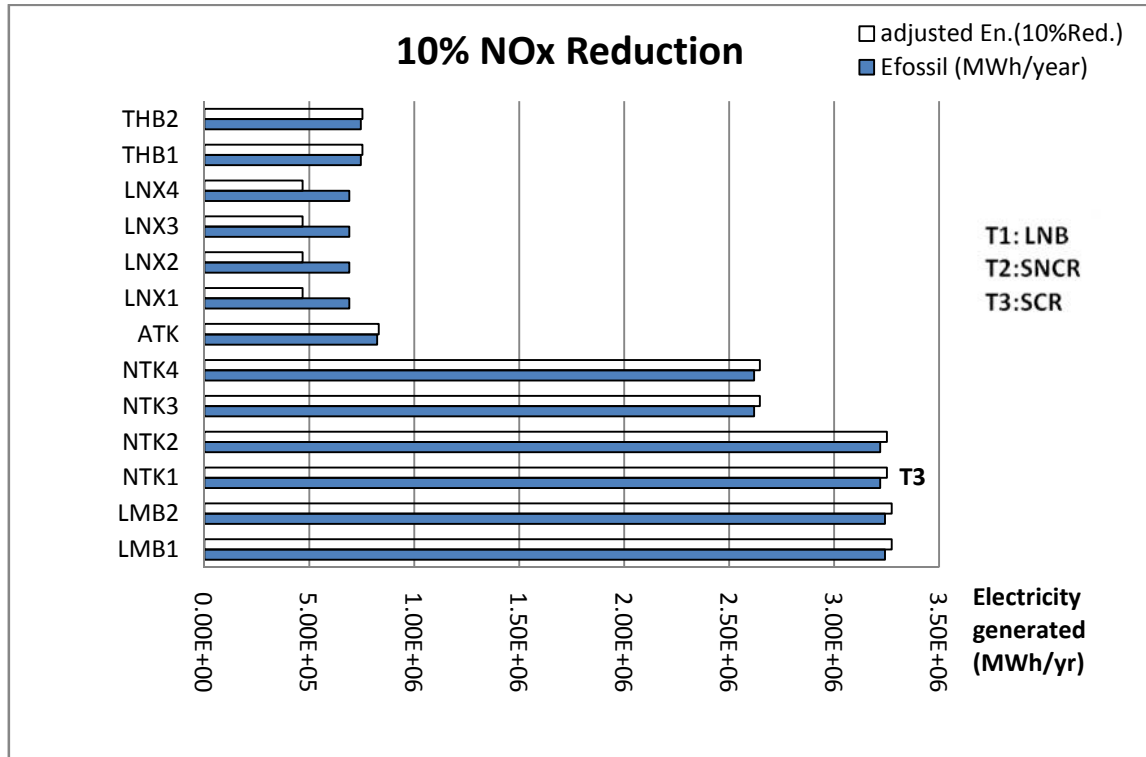


Figure 4.12 Electricity generation strategy for 10% NOx reduction

As higher NOx targets are required, the optimizer considered to implement technologies on more boilers. As seen in Figure 4.13, for 30 % NOx reduction, the result shows that the capacity factor for all natural gas boilers at Lennox power plant have been reduced by about 32%. The model also decided to apply SCR technology on two units of Nanticoke power plant (NTK3 and NTK4), the same thing is true for Atikokan (ATK) and the two boilers at Thunder Bay power plant (THB1 and THB2).

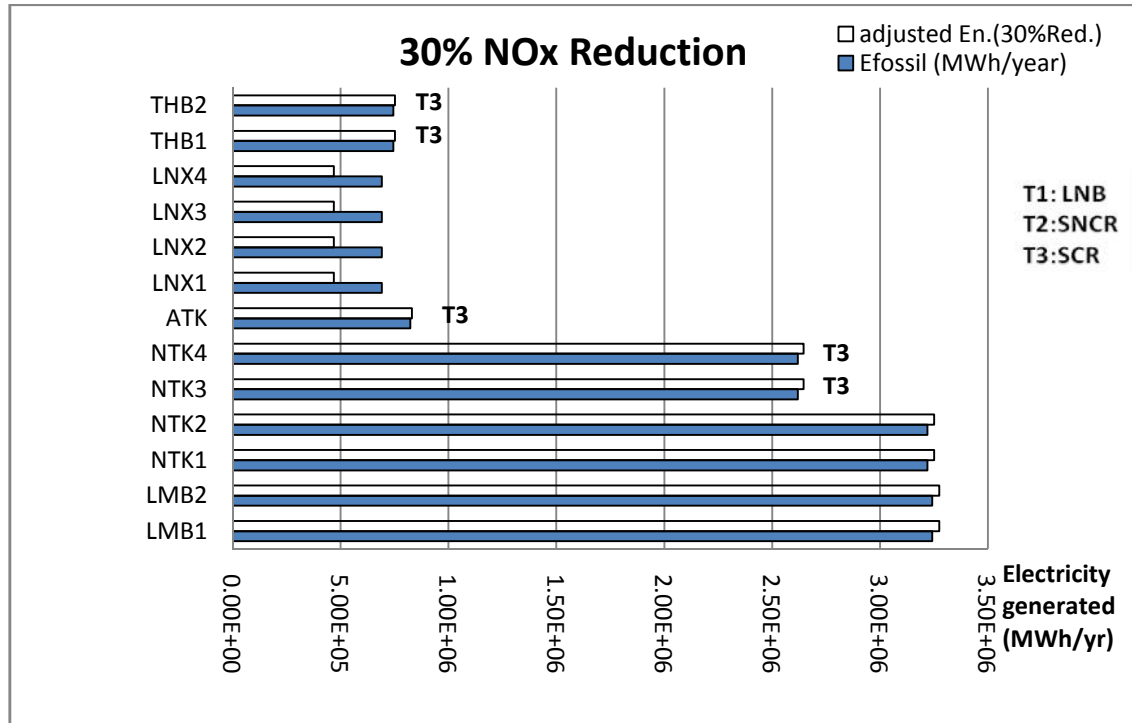


Figure 4.13 Electricity generation strategy for 30% NOx reduction

Higher NOx reduction targets require more technologies to be implemented on boilers. For 50 % NOx reduction (see Figure 4.14) the results show that SCR technology will be installed on six boilers - three boilers (NTK1, NTK2 and NTK3) at Nanticoke, one boiler (ATK) at Atikokan and two boilers (THB1 and THB2) at Thunder Bay power plants. In addition to installing SCR technology on THB2 at Thunder Bay power plant, the optimization result also shows that the production of this power plant's units should be decreased by about 52%. Moreover, the results also show that the power production of 3 boilers (NTK4, LNX3 and LNX4) at Nanticoke and Lennox power plants should be decreased by about 28%, 5% and 32% respectively. The results show that the electricity generation from all non fossil fuel power plants has also been increased by 1%.

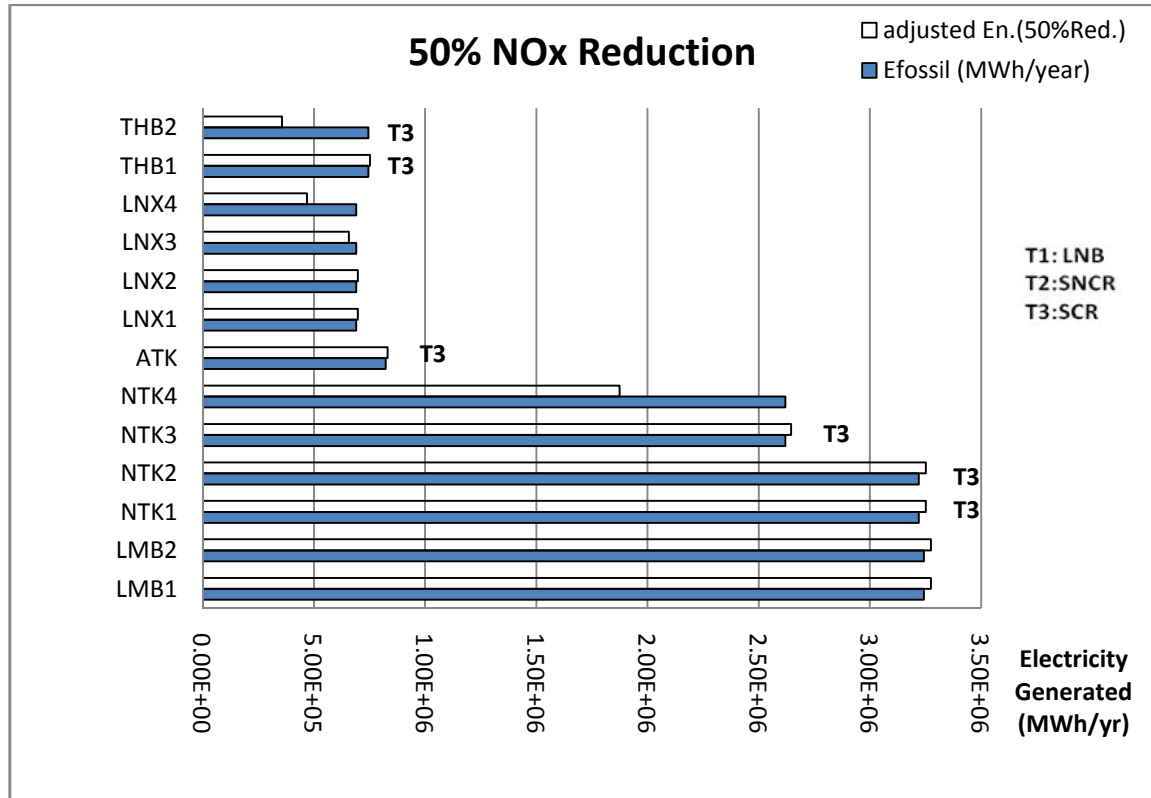


Figure 4.14 Electricity generation strategy for 50% NOx reduction

For the case of 80% NOx reduction, the optimizer recommended to apply SCR technology for all the units of the coal power plants – 2 boilers (LMB1 and LMB2) at Lambton, 4 boilers (NTK1, NTK2, NTK3 and NTK4), one boiler (ATK) at Atikokan, 2 boilers (THB1 and THB2) at Thunder Bay power plants. The result obtained also shows that the capacity factors for all natural gas boilers at Lennox power plant have been decreased by about 32% as shown in Figure 4.15.

However, it is found that 80% is the maximum possible NOx reduction target and we cannot go beyond that, since the SCR technology can remove up to 85% reduction as reported in the literature.

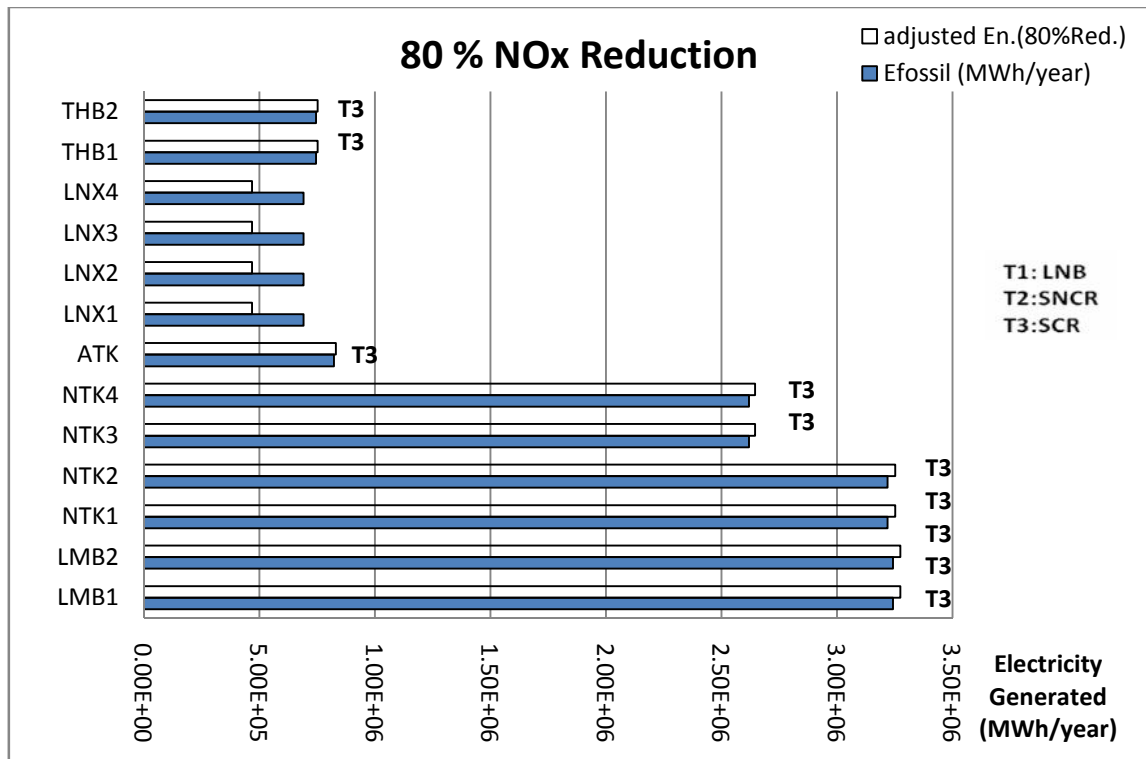


Figure 4.15 Electricity generation strategy for 80% NOx reduction

Table 4.4 below summarizes the results for case 1.B which considers all options .It shows that whether the units (boilers) in the plants needs to be switched to natural gas or not and also if any technology should be implemented or not.The full black squares represent coalboilers while open circles represent natural gas boilers. However, the multiplication sign and the othersymbol representswitching and installing technologies options respectively. In this case, it is noticed that the model decided to avoid switching any power plant from coal to natural gas for all the reduction targets since the natural gas power plants have high operational cost and our main target is to minimize the cost, so the

model chose to install technologies on the power plants rather than switch them to natural gas.

Table 4.4 A summary of the optimization results for case **1.B**

Plant	Base case	0% NOx reduction				5% NOx reduction				10 % NOx reduction			
		S	LNB	SNCR	SCR	S	LNB	SNCR	SCR	S	LNB	SNCR	SCR
LMB1	■	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	-
LMB2	■	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	-
NTK1	■	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	△
NTK2	■	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	-
NTK3	■	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	-
NTK4	■	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	-
ATK	■	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	-
LNX1	○	○	-	-	-	○	-	-	-	○	-	-	-
LNX2	○	○	-	-	-	○	-	-	-	○	-	-	-
LNX3	○	○	-	-	-	○	-	-	-	○	-	-	-
LNX4	○	○	-	-	-	○	-	-	-	○	-	-	-
THB1	■	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	△	■	-	-	-
THB2	■	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	-

Plant	Base case	30% NOx reduction				50% NOx reduction				80 % NOx reduction			
		S	LNB	SNCR	SCR	S	LNB	SNCR	SCR	S	LNB	SNCR	SCR
LMB1	■	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	△
LMB2	■	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	△
NTK1	■	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	△	■	-	-	△
NTK2	■	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	△	■	-	-	△
NTK3	■	■	-	-	△	■	-	-	△	■	-	-	△
NTK4	■	■	-	-	△	■	-	-	-	■	-	-	△
ATK	■	■	-	-	△	■	-	-	△	■	-	-	△
LNX1	○	○	-	-	-	○	-	-	-	○	-	-	-
LNX2	○	○	-	-	-	○	-	-	-	○	-	-	-
LNX3	○	○	-	-	-	○	-	-	-	○	-	-	-
LNX4	○	○	-	-	-	○	-	-	-	○	-	-	-
THB1	■	■	-	-	△	■	-	-	△	■	-	-	△
THB2	■	■	-	-	△	■	-	-	△	■	-	-	△

- : Coal.
- : Natural Gas.
- : No technology installed.
- △ : Technology installed.

Table 4.5 shows the total cost and NOx emission for each reduction target. It is clear that increasing the target of NOx reduction will give us a higher total annualized cost since it installs more technologies each time the reduction target increased.

Table 4.5 Total cost and NOx emission at different reduction targets for case **1.B**

% NOx Reduction Target	Total cost (\$/yr)	Total NOx emission (ton/yr)	cost increased %
0	3.037E+09	36722.152	
5	3.042E+09	35379.029	0.16
10	3.055E+09	31968.469	0.58
30	3.081E+09	24936.062	1.45
50	3.128E+09	18673.01	3.01
80	3.147E+09	7245.177	3.62

4.1.3 Sensitivity analysis

The effect of increase or decrease in the cost of installed technologies was investigated. For an increase of 50% in the technology cost compared to the base case, we noticed that the total annualized cost increases gradually with % percentage for every NOx reduction target as shown in table 4.6. We studied also the effect of decreasing the technology cost with 50%, it is obviously noticed that the total cost for each NOx reduction target increases until we reach 80% NOx reduction. Although SCR technology was installed for all the boilers that running by coal for 80 % NOx reduction target, the total annualized cost was dropped. This is because the model decided to decrease the productivity

(capacity factor) of all the boilers that running by natural gas (Lennox power plant) which is the most expensive fuel in OPG's fleet.

As shown in table 4.6 and figure 4.16 below, the result shows that any increase or decrease in the technology cost does not affect the number of units to be switched to run with natural gas or amount of NO_x reduced. The only affected variable is the total annualized cost.

Table 4.6 Percent increase or decrease in cost of electricity for different NO_x reduction targets

<i>% NO_x Reduction Target</i>	<i>Base Case</i>	<i>50 % Increase in Technology cost</i>	<i>50 % Decrease in Technology Cost</i>
0			
5	0.16	0.25	0.08
10	0.58	0.88	0.29
30	1.45	2.17	0.72
50	3.01	4.08	1.94
80	3.62	5.43	1.81

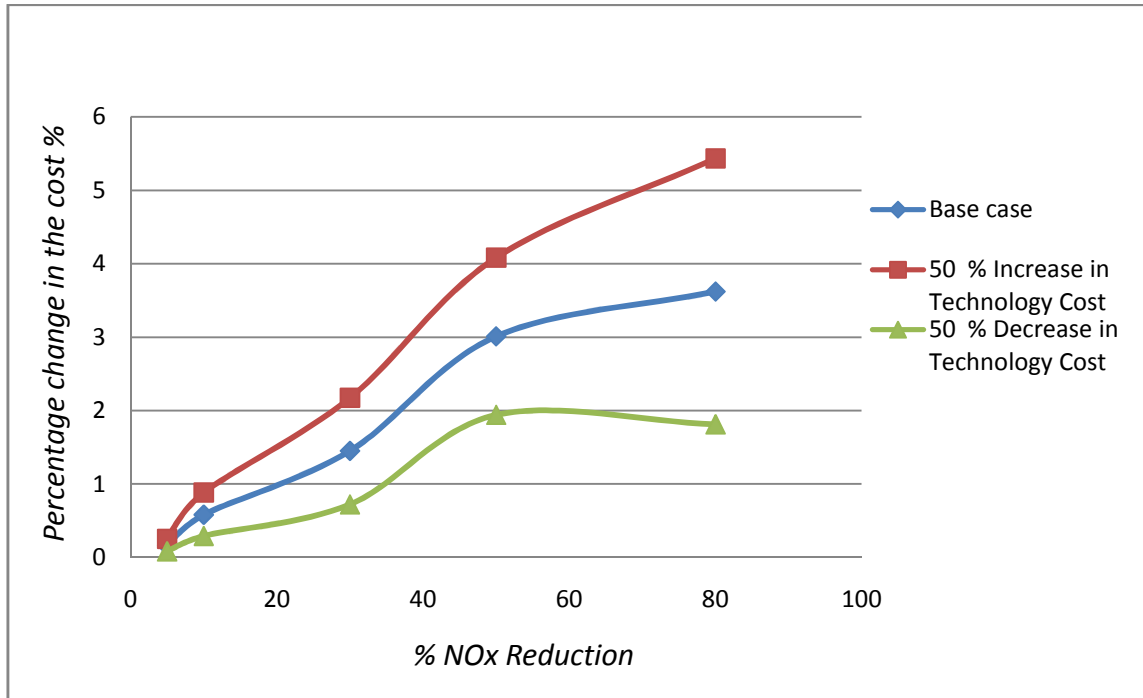


Figure 4.16 Percent increase or decrease in cost of electricity for different NOx reduction targets

4.2 Case study 2

This case study will focus on SO₂ emitted from Ontario power generation. The objective of this study is to determine the best strategy or mix of strategies for the electricity sector to meet a given SO₂ reduction target at a minimum cost while maintaining a desired production level. Table 4.7 shows a general view of OPG fossil fuel generating stations and SO₂ emission. Since non fossil fuel power plants are assumed not to emit SO₂, the main focus is on electricity generated from the fossil fuel power plants. The operational costs for nuclear, hydroelectric, and wind turbine were estimated to be \$43.2, \$6.75, and \$5.4/MWh, respectively. The nominal conditions for OPG's existing fleet of power plants are shown earlier and given below:

- Total electricity generation: 11884 MW
- Total SO₂ emissions: 80223 ton/yr
- Total operational cost: 3.086×10^9 \$/yr.

Table 4.7 OPG fossil fuel generating stations and SO₂ emission (Atten 2004)

<i>Generating stations</i>	<i>Fuel used</i>	<i>Installed capacity (MW)</i>	<i>Number of Units</i>	<i>Operational cost (\$/MWh)</i>	<i>SO₂ emission rate (ton /MWh)</i>	<i>Current electricity generated (MWh/year)</i>
<i>Nanticoke 1 (NTK1)</i>	Coal	500	2	40	0.0039	3219300
<i>Nanticoke 2 (NTK2)</i>	Coal	500	2	40	0.0039	2619567
<i>Lambton (LMB)</i>	Coal	500	2	34	0.00286	3242295
<i>Lennox (LNX)</i>	Natural gas	535	4	81	0.00082	690500
<i>Thunder Bay (THB)</i>	Coal	155	2	40	0.006	745000
<i>Atikokan (ATK)</i>	Coal	215	1	40	0.00599	823000

SO₂ emissions were calculated based on emission factors taken from North American Power Plant Air Emissions report (Atten 2004). Three mitigation options to reduce SO₂ emission considered here are fuel balancing, fuel switching and applying different technologies to control SO₂ emission for coal power plants.

In this case study, we considered one technology which is: flue gas desulfurization (FGD) with about 90 % efficiency. The cost effectiveness of this technology as reported in the literature is: \$2050 /ton of SO₂ removed. The cost for the technology is amortized with a 10-year lifetime and a 5% annual interest.

The power generation supply system from different types of power stations is represented in a superstructure manner as shown in Figure 4.17. Three different options to reduce SO₂ emissions are also considered in this superstructure representation as shown in Figures 4.18, 4.19 and 4.20 which are fuel balancing, fuel switching and applying flue gas desulfurization (FGD) technology.

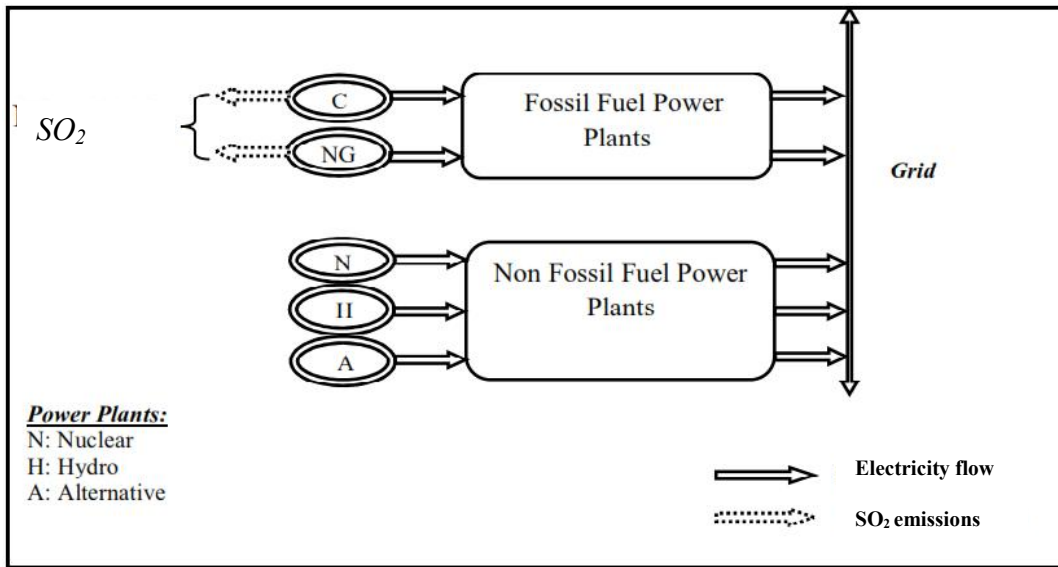


Figure 4.17 Superstructure for power plants

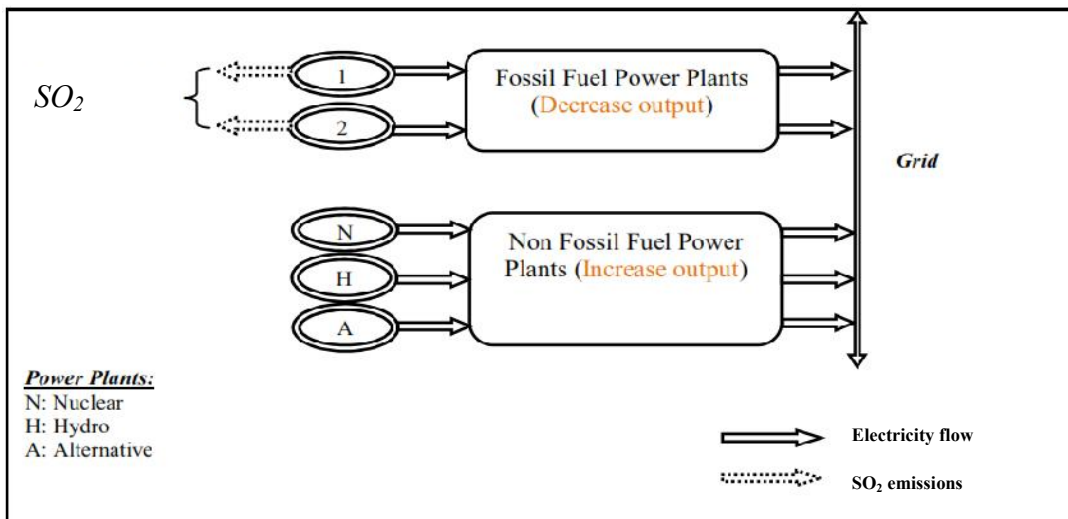


Figure 4.18 Fuel balancing

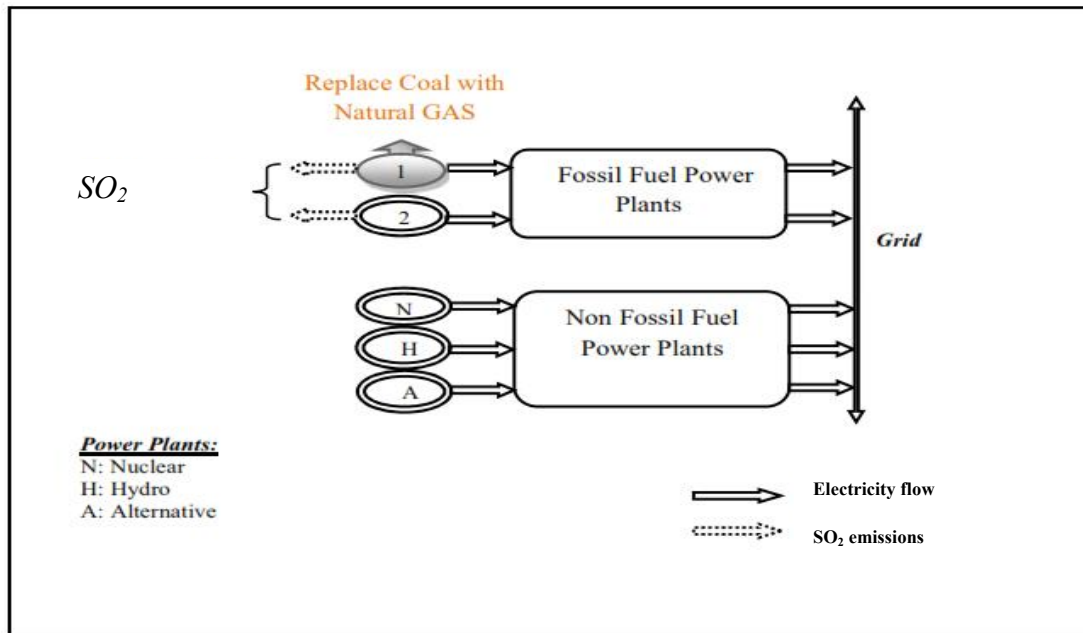


Figure 4.19 Fuel switching

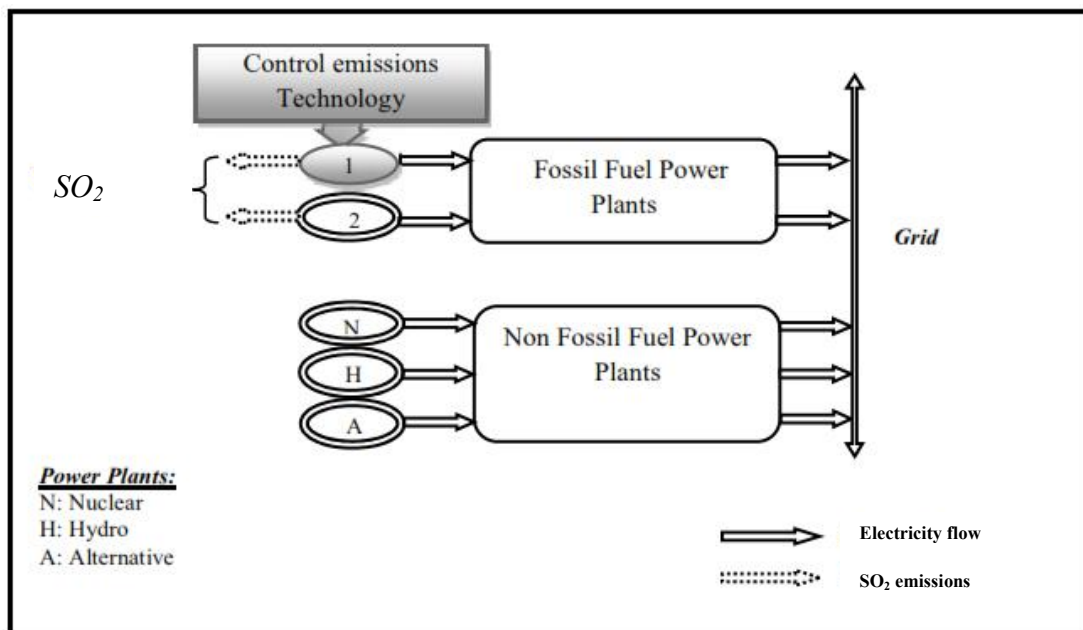


Figure 4.20 Control technologies

As we mentioned earlier, the initial model was MINLP and then it is being normalized. The linearised model discussed earlier in chapter 3 was coded into the General Algebraic Modeling System (GAMS) and solved using the mixed integer linear programming (MILP) solver. Two cases were studied in this case study; case (2.A) will consider two options which are fuel balancing and switching. For case (2.B), all three options will be considered.

4.2.1 Case 2.A

The options considered in this case for the SO₂ reduction are balancing and fuel switching.

The optimization result for the base case (0% SO₂ reduction) shows that all non fossil fuel power plants have to operate with 1% higher than the nominal capacity factor. The only plant for which the capacity factor decreases is the Lennox generating station (natural gas) in which the capacity factor decreased by about 32% .The overall effect of the adjustments in the capacity factors is to reduce the overall SO₂ emissions. This result may seem to be expected since the Lennox generating station is fuelled by natural gas which is the most expensive fuel in OPG's fleet. The reduction in SO₂ emissions is achieved by increasing slightly the capacity factor of the non-fossil fuel generating stations (hydro-electric, nuclear and wind) and by decreasing significantly the capacity factor of Lennox. The capacity factors of the other fossil fuel plants were increased by only a small increment. The optimizer tries to satisfy demand of each station by adjusting the operation of existing units e.g., increasing power production from existing non thermal power plants

and decreasing it from some existing thermal power plants (fuel balancing) as shown in Figure 4.21. Base case is also shown in the figure for comparison.

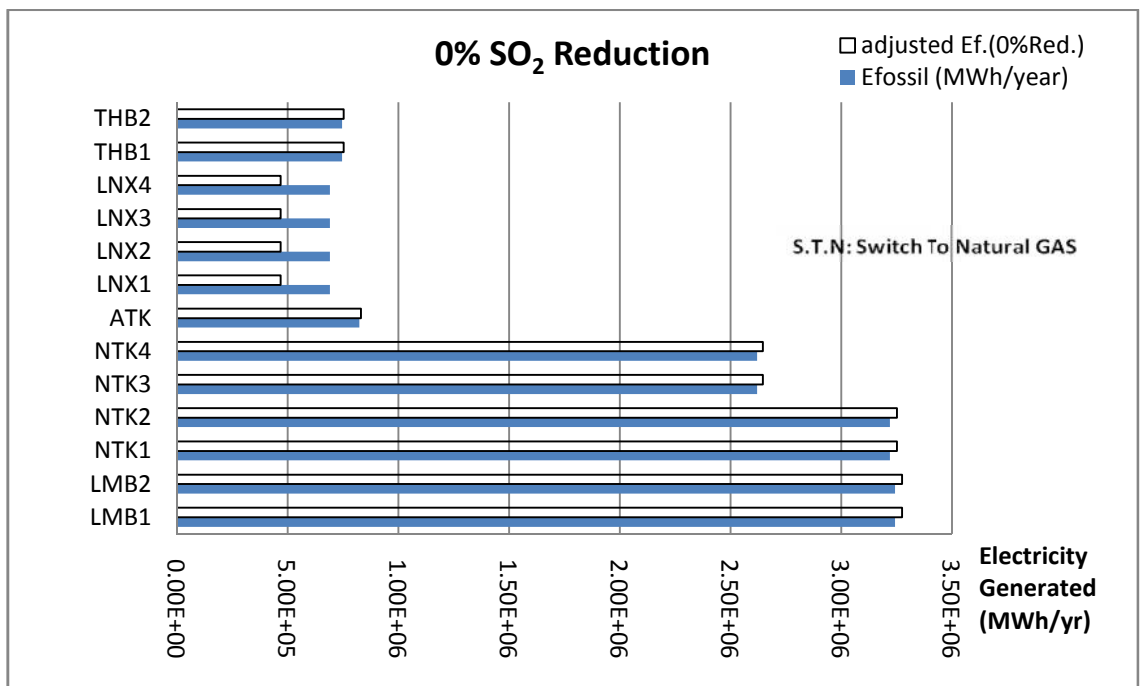


Figure 4.21 Electricity generation strategy for 0% SO₂ reduction

Figure 4.22 shows the optimization results for the case of 5% SO₂ reduction target. For this case, we noticed that the optimizer chose to switch one unit (THB1) at Thunder Bay power plant from coal to natural gas. The result obtained also shows that the capacity factors for all natural gas boilers at Lennox power plant have been decreased by about 32%. In addition to switching of one boiler (THB1) at Thunder Bay power plant from coal to natural gas, the results also showed that the capacity factor of this power plant should be decreased by about 14%.

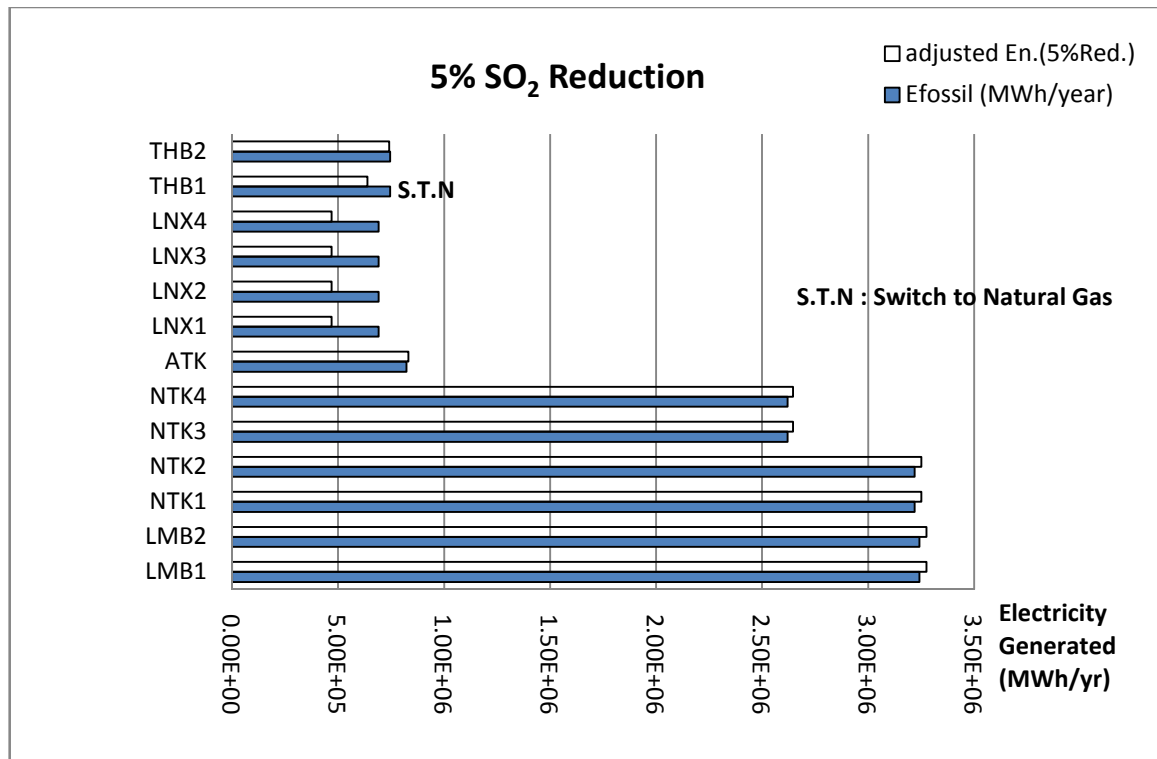


Figure 4.22 Electricity generation strategy for 5% SO₂ reduction

In order to achieve more than 5% SO₂ reduction, the model chose to switch more than one unit. This involves fleet changes from coal to natural gas. As seen in Figure 4.23, for example, the optimization results show that in order to achieve a 10% SO₂ reduction while maintaining the electricity to the grid at minimum cost, the capacity factor for all natural gas boilers have been reduced by 32%, two boilers at Thunder Bay (THB1 and THB2) need to be switched from coal to natural gas. The capacity factors for the non-fossil fuel generating stations should be increased by 1% which is always the case. Furthermore, the capacity factor of one unit (THB1) at Thunder Bay power plant should be decreased

by about 11%. The same thing is true for Atikokan power plant (ATK) should be decreased by about 3%.

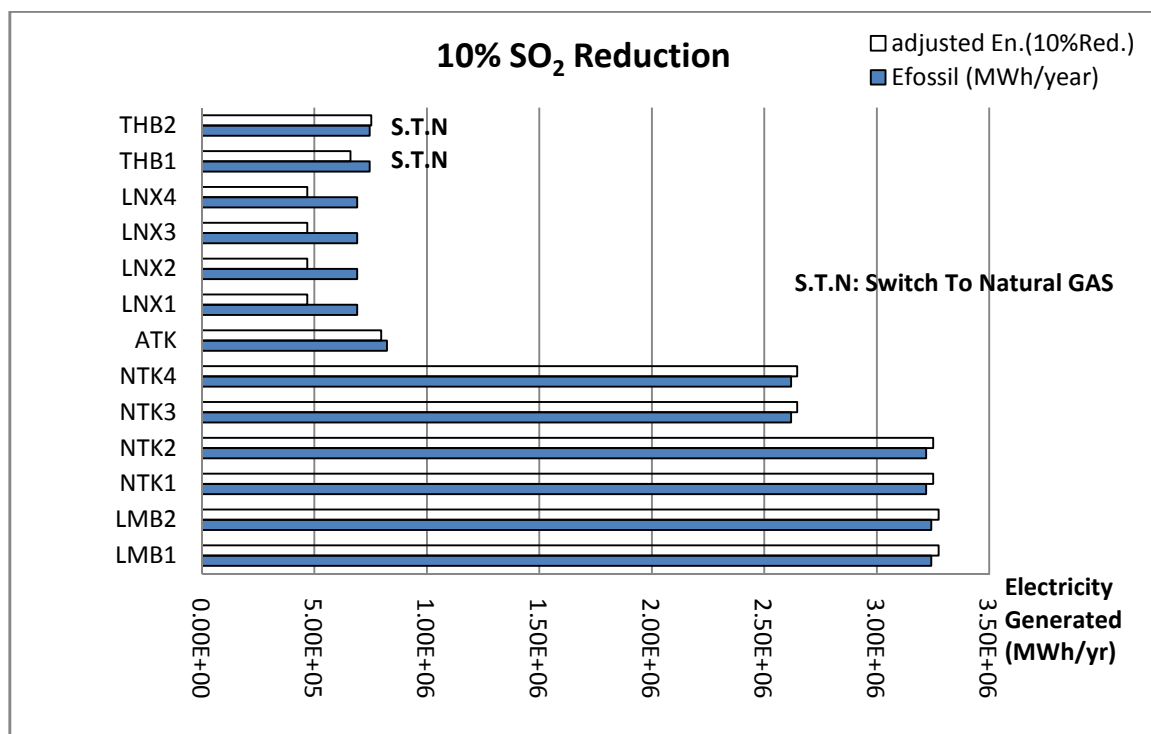


Figure 4.23 Electricity generation strategy for 10% SO₂ reduction

As higher SO₂ targets are required, the optimizer will choose more coal boilers to be switched to natural gas. For the case of 30% SO₂ reduction (see Figure 4.24) the results show that 4 boilers which are running by coal need to be switched to natural gas: one boiler at Nanticoke, one boiler at Atikokan and two boilers at Thunder Bay power plants respectively (NTK1, ATK, THB1 and THB2). The result also shows that the capacity factor for two natural gas boilers at Lennox power plant (LNX2 and LNX4) have been reduced by about 27 and 32% respectively, and the same thing is true for one coal-fired boiler at

Nanticoke power plant (NTK2) have been decreased by about 18%.The electricity generation from all non fossil fuel power plants has also been increased by 1%.

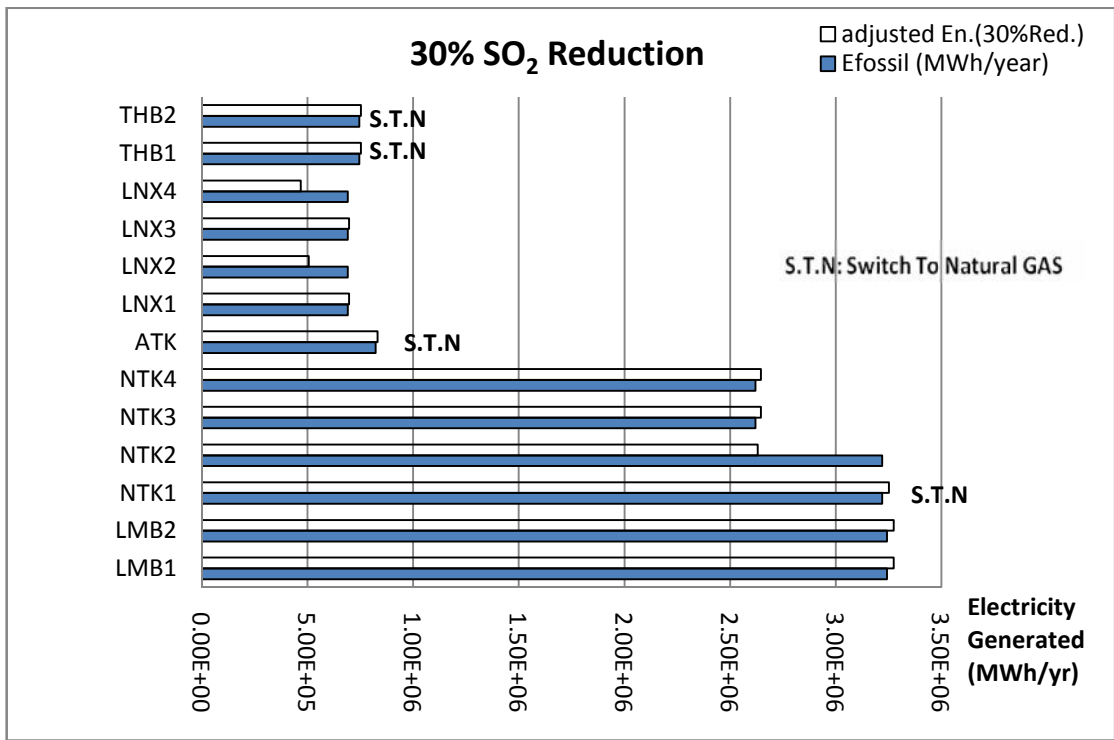


Figure 4.24 Electricity generation strategy for 30% SO₂ reduction

For a higher reduction target, such as 50 % (see Figure 4.25), more coal power plants must be switched to operate with natural gas. The result shows that 6 boilers which are running by coal need to be switched to natural gas, - three boilers (NTK1, NTK2 and NTK3) at Nanticoke, one boiler (ATK) at Atikokan and two boilers (THB1 and THB2) at Thunder Bay power plants. The results also show that the electricity generation from all non fossil fuel power plants has also been increased by 1%. The result also shows that the capacity

factor for all natural gas boilers at Lennox power plant have been reduced by about 32% and the same thing is true for Atikokan power plant (ATK) by about 14%.

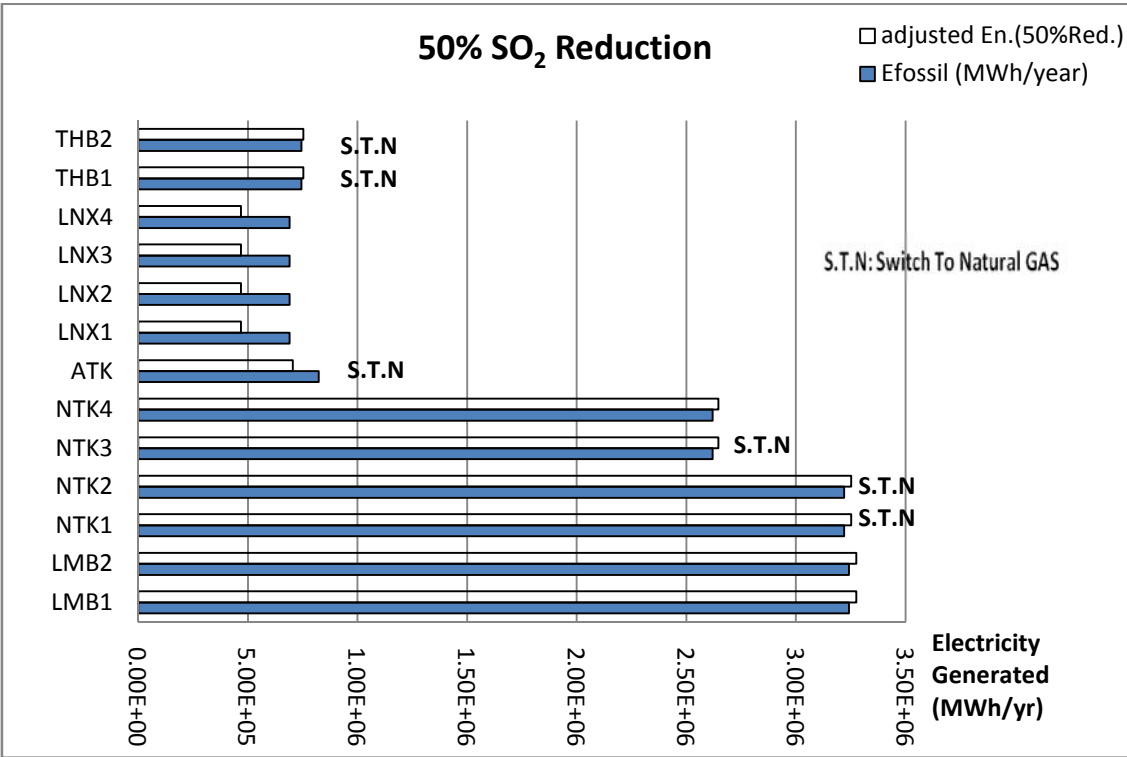


Figure 4.25 Electricity generation strategy for 50% SO₂ reduction

For the case of 70% SO₂ reduction, the optimizer recommended to switch all units from coal to natural gas except one unit at Lambton (LMB1). However, the result obtained shows that the capacity factor for this unit of Lambton power plant (LMB1) has been decreased by about 14% as shown in Figure 4.26. The result also shows that the capacity factor for three natural gas boilers at Lennox power plant (LNX1, LNX2 and LNX4) have been reduced by about 12, 32 and 32% respectively.

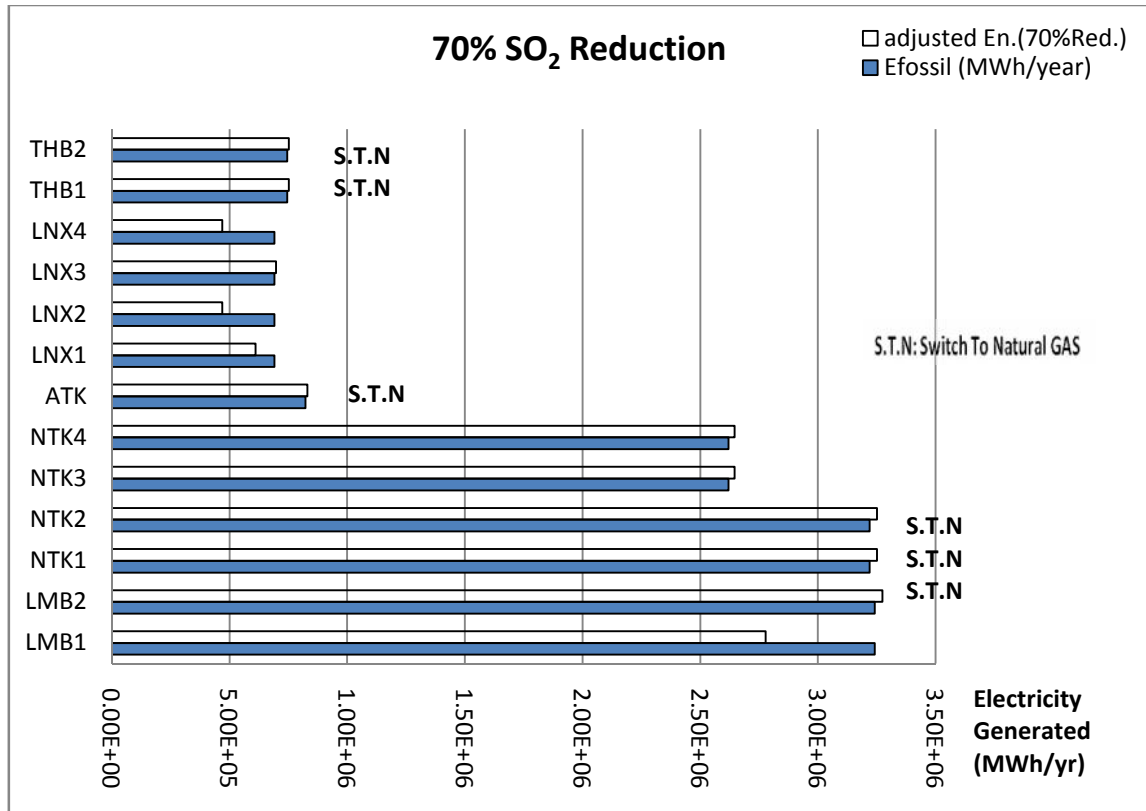


Figure 4.26 Electricity generation strategy for 70% SO₂ reduction

In order to achieve 75% SO₂ reduction, the optimizer decided to switch all coal power plants to operate with natural gas. The result obtained also shows that the capacity factors for all natural gas boilers at Lennox power plant have been decreased by about 32% as shown in Figure 4.27. The result also shows that the capacity factor for one boiler at Nanticoke power plant (NTK1) have been reduced by about 3%.

However, it is found that 75% is the maximum possible SO₂ reduction target and we cannot achieve more than that.

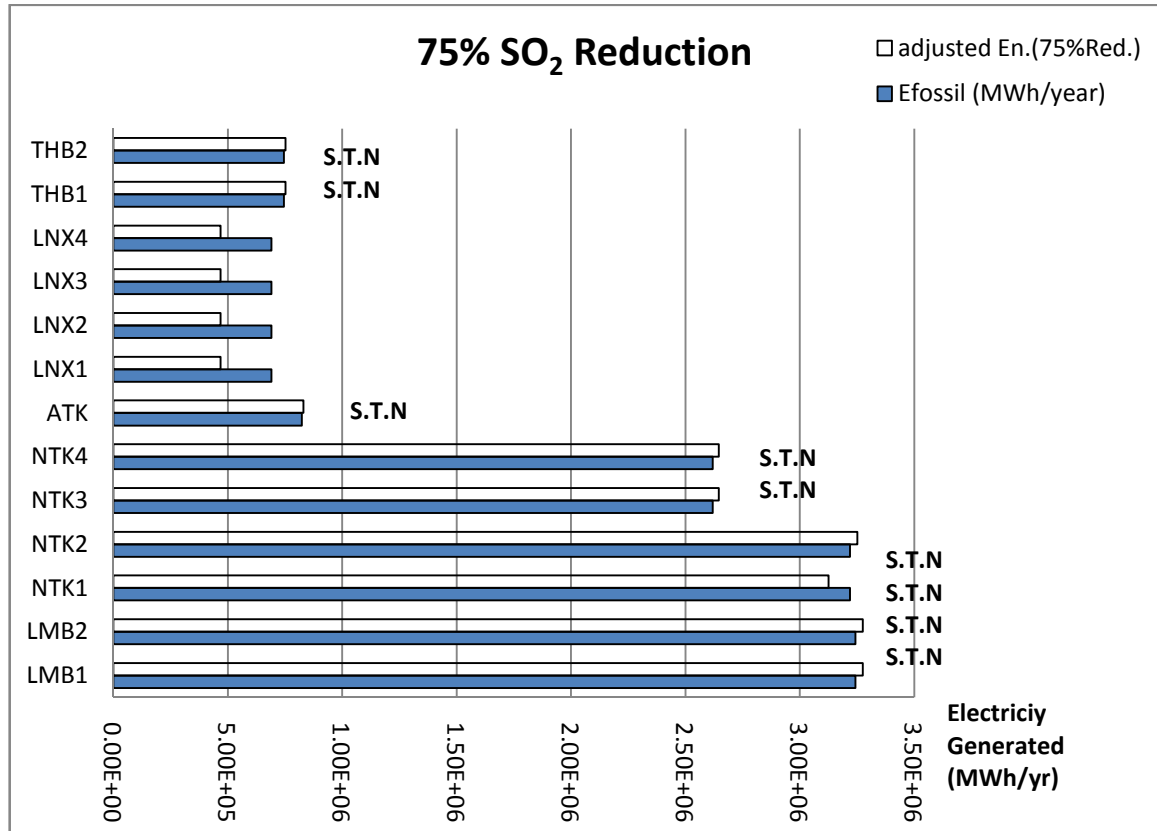


Figure 4.27 Electricity generation strategy for 75% SO₂ reduction

Table 4.8 below summarizes the results for case (2.A). It shows that whether the units (boilers) in the plants need to be switched to natural gas or not for different reduction targets. The full black squares represent coal boilers while open circles represent natural gas boilers. However, the multiplication sign represents the switching option.

Table 4.8 A summary of the optimization results for case 2.A

<i>Plant</i>	<i>Base case</i>	<i>0% SO₂ Reduction</i>	<i>5% SO₂ Reduction</i>	<i>10% SO₂ Reduction</i>	<i>30% SO₂ Reduction</i>
LMB1	■	■	■	■	■
LMB2	■	■	■	■	■
NTK1	■	■	■	■	×
NTK2	■	■	■	■	■
NTK3	■	■	■	■	■
NTK4	■	■	■	■	■
ATK	■	■	■	■	×
LNx1	○	○	○	○	○
LNx2	○	○	○	○	○
LNx3	○	○	○	○	○
LNx4	○	○	○	○	○
THB1	■	■	×	×	×
THB2	■	■	■	×	×

<i>Plant</i>	<i>Base case</i>	<i>50% SO₂ Reduction</i>	<i>70% SO₂ Reduction</i>	<i>75% SO₂ Reduction</i>
LMB1	■	■	■	×
LMB2	■	■	×	×
NTK1	■	×	×	×
NTK2	■	×	×	×
NTK3	■	×	×	×
NTK4	■	■	×	×
ATK	■	×	×	×
LNx1	○	○	○	○
LNx2	○	○	○	○
LNx3	○	○	○	○
LNx4	○	○	○	○
THB1	■	■	×	×
THB2	■	■	×	×

- : Coal
- : Natural Gas
- × : Switch to Natural gas

Table 4.9 shows the total cost and SO₂ emission for each reduction target. Obviously increasing the reduction target will lead to a higher total annualized cost since it involves structural change such as switch some of the coal power plants to natural gas.

Table 4.9 Total cost and total SO₂ emission at different reduction targets for case 2.A

<i>% SO₂ Reduction Target</i>	<i>Total cost (\$/yr)</i>	<i>Total SO₂ emission (ton/yr)</i>	<i>Cost increased %</i>
0	3.04E+09	80223.7	
5	3.05E+09	76212.515	0.42
10	3.06E+09	72201.33	0.92
30	3.17E+09	56156.59	4.22
50	3.26E+09	39907.701	7.22
70	3.39E+09	24067.11	11.63
75	3.43E+09	18401.215	13.03

4.2.2 Case 2.B

All three mitigation options to reduce SO₂ emission are considered here which are fuel balancing, fuel switching and implementing flue gas desulfurization (FGD) technology.

The model gives us the same results as case (2.A) for 0% SO₂ reduction when two mitigation options (fuel balancing and fuel switching) considered for the base case (0% SO₂ reduction) when all three mitigation options considered. The results show that all non

fossil fuel power plants have to operate with 1% higher than the nominal capacity factor. The only plant for which the capacity factor decreases is the Lennox generating station (natural gas) in which the capacity factor decreased by about 32% .The model tries to satisfy demand of each station by adjusting the operation of existing units e.g., increasing production from existing non thermalpower plants and decreasing it from some existing thermal power plants (fuel balancing) as shown in Figure4.28.

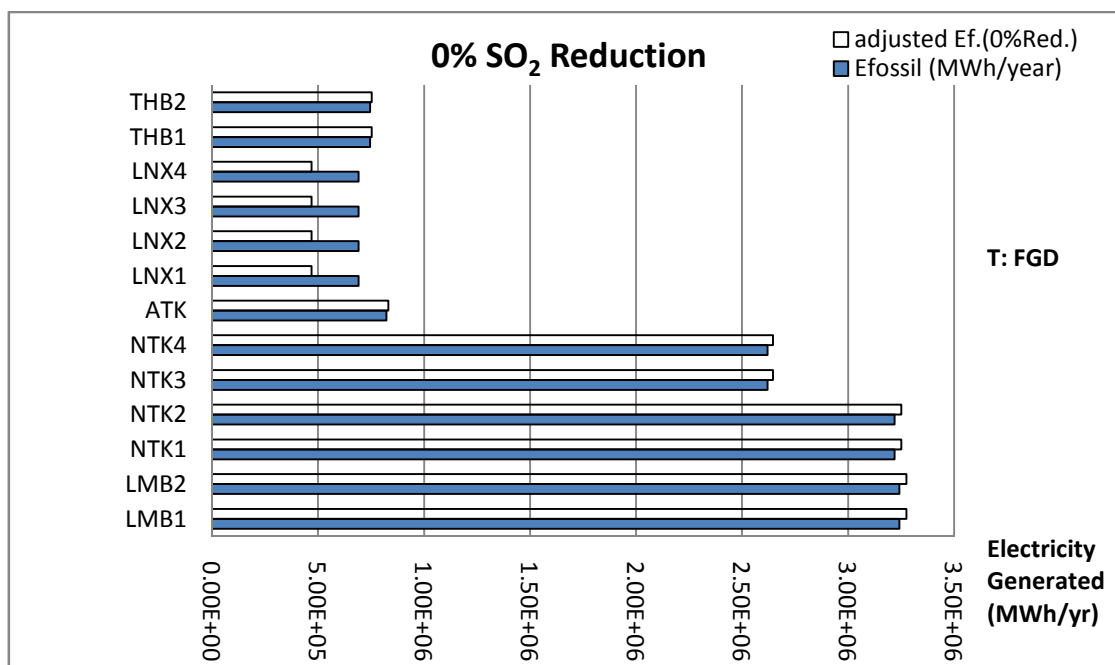


Figure 4.28 Electricity generation strategy for 0% SO₂ reduction

Figure 4.29 shows the optimization results for the case of 5% SO₂ reduction target. For this case, we noticed that the model chose not to switch any unit from coal to natural gas and not to install any technology for any power plant. The results also show that the capacity factor for two natural gas boilers at Lennox power plant (LNX2 and LNX4) have

been reduced by about 6 and 32% respectively. And also the production from two coal fired boilers at Thunder Bay power plant (THB1 and THB2) have been decreased by about 19 and 82% respectively.

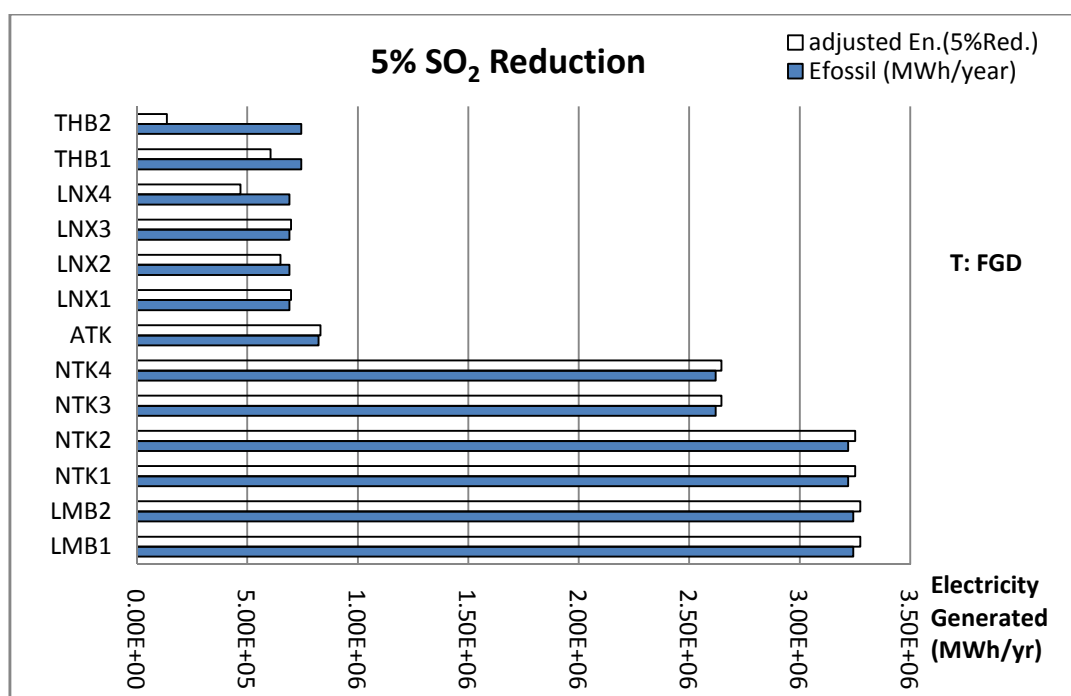


Figure 4.29 Electricity generation strategy for 5% SO₂ reduction

In order to achieve more than 5 % SO₂ reduction, the optimizer chose to apply flue gas desulfurization (FGD) technology on one unit. As seen in Figure 4.30, for example, for 10 % SO₂ reduction, the results show that in order to achieve 10% SO₂ reduction while maintaining the electricity to the grid at minimum cost, FGD technology will be installed on one unit of Nanticoke power plant (NTK3). The result also shows that the electricity produced from all natural gas boilers at Lennox power plant have been reduced by about 32%.

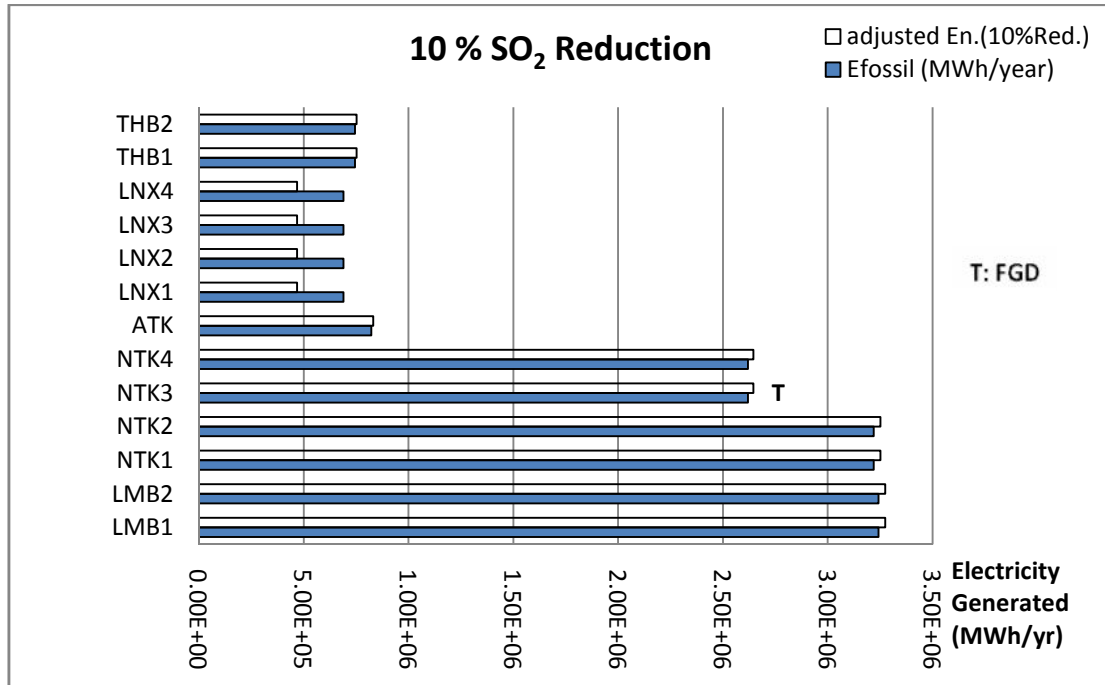


Figure 4.30 Electricity generation strategy for 10% SO₂ reduction

As higher SO₂ targets are required, the optimizer considered to implement technologies on more boilers. As seen in Figure 4.31, for 30 % SO₂ reduction, the result shows that the capacity factor for all natural gas boilers at Lennox power plant have been reduced by about 32%. The model also decided to apply FGD technology on one unit of Nanticoke power plant (NTK2), the only boiler at Atikokan (ATK) and the same thing is true for two boilers (THB1 and THB2) at Thunder Bay power plant.

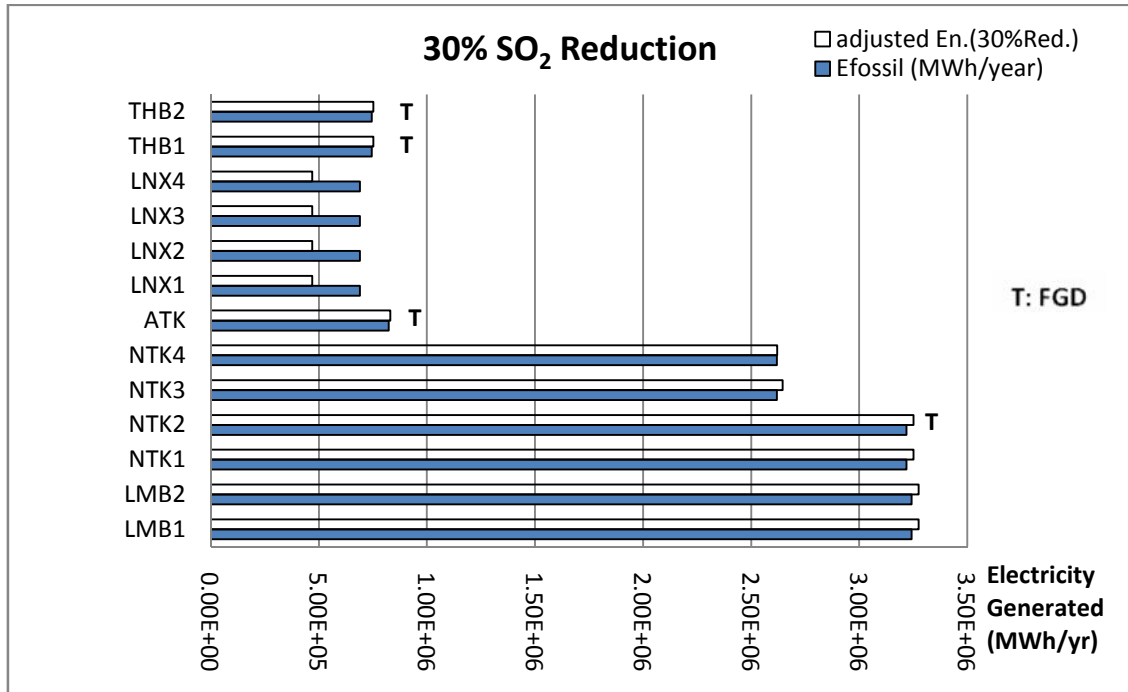


Figure 4.31 Electricity generation strategy for 30% SO₂ reduction

Higher SO₂ reduction targets require more technologies to be implemented on boilers. For 50 % SO₂ reduction (see Figure 4.32) the results show that the electricity generation from all non fossil fuel power plants has also been increased by 1%. The optimization result also shows that FGD technology will be installed on six boilers - three boilers (NTK1, NTK2 and NTK3) at Nanticoke, one boiler (ATK) at Atikokan and two boilers (THB1 and THB2) at Thunder Bay power plants. The result also shows that the capacity factor for all natural gas boilers at Lennox power plant have been reduced by about 32%.

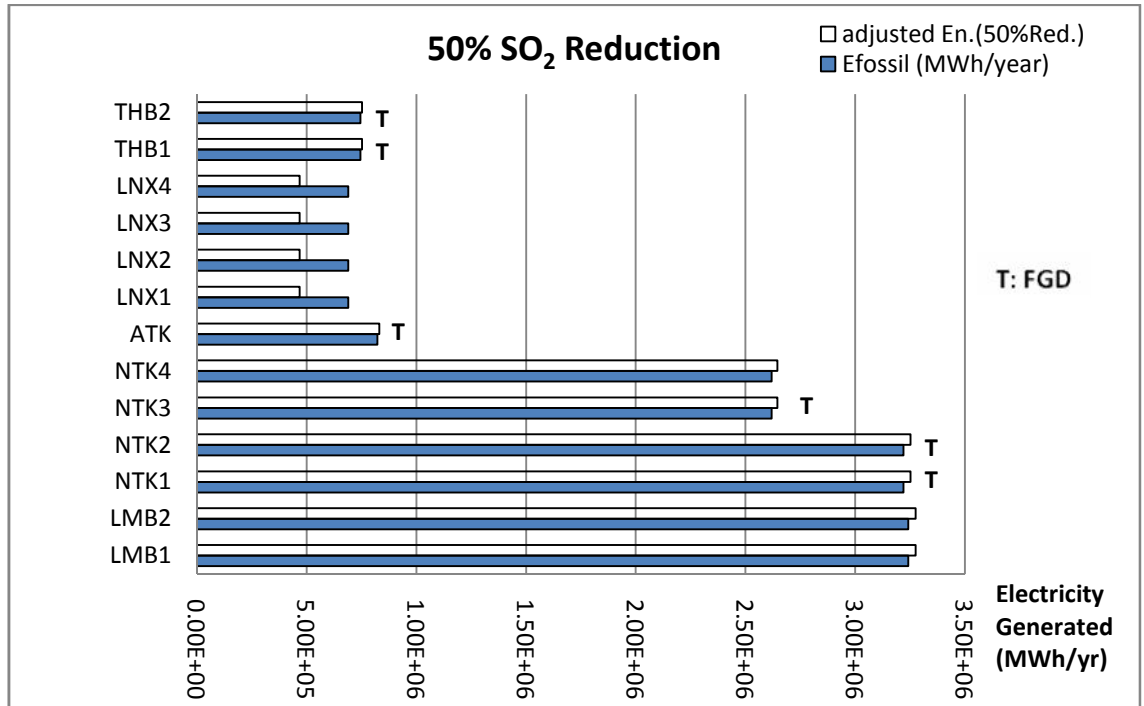


Figure 4.32 Electricity generation strategy for 50% SO₂ reduction

For the case of 80% SO₂ reduction, the optimizer recommended to apply FGD technology for all the units of the coal power plants except one unit at Lambton (LMB1). However, the result obtained shows that the capacity factor for this unit of Lambton power plant (LMB1) has been decreased by about 25% as shown in Figure 4.33.

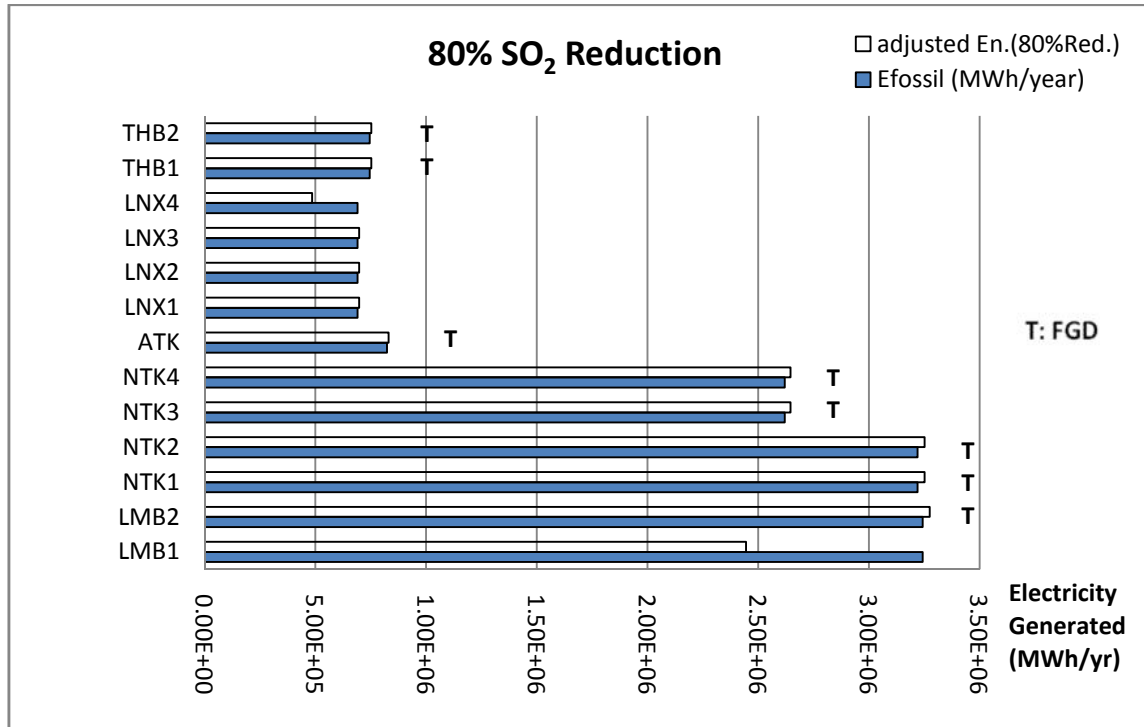


Figure 4.33 Electricity generation strategy for 80% SO₂ reduction

In order to achieve 85% SO₂ reduction, the optimizer decided to install FGD technology for all the units of the coal power plants – 2 boilers (LMB1 and LMB2) at Lambton, 4 boilers (NTK1, NTK2, NTK3 and NTK4), one boiler (ATK) at Atikokan, 2 boilers (THB1 and THB2) at Thunder Bay power plants. The result obtained also shows that the power production from all natural gas boilers at Lennox power plant have been decreased by about 32% as shown in Figure 4.34.

However, it is found that 85% is the maximum possible SO₂ reduction target and we cannot go beyond that, since the FGD technology can remove up to 90% reduction as reported in the literature.

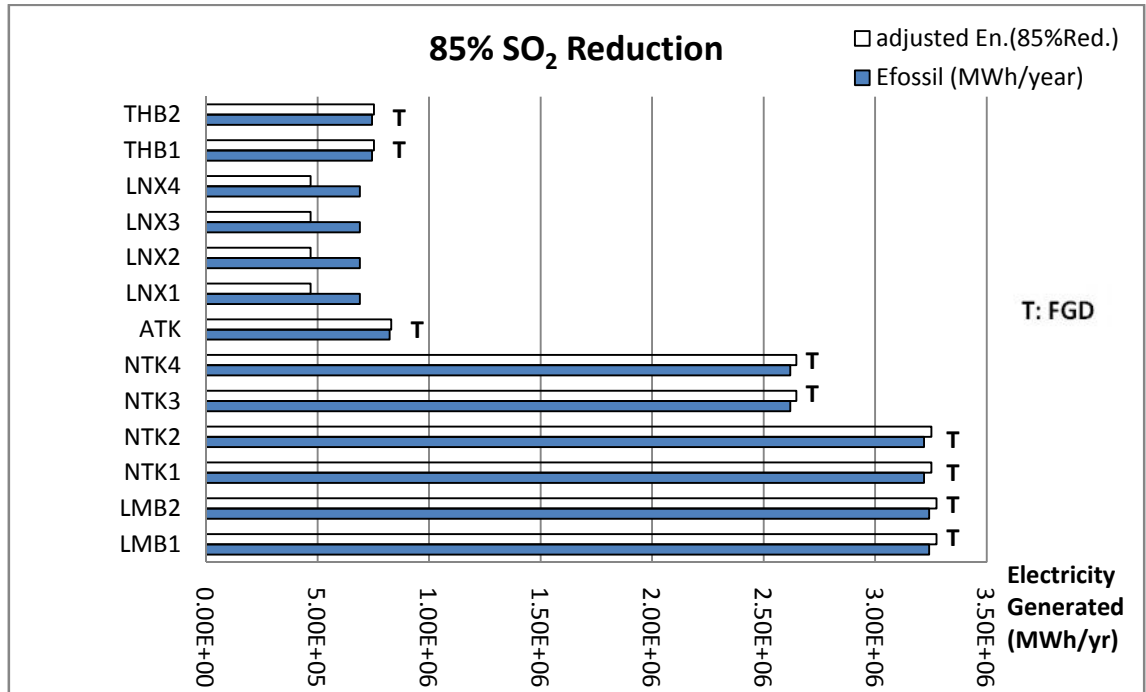


Figure 4.34 Electricity generation strategy for 85% SO₂ reduction

Table 4.10 below summarizes the results for case 2.B which considers all options .It shows that whether the units (boilers) in the plants needs to be switched to natural gas or not and also if any technology should be implemented or not.The full black squares represent coalboilers while open circles represent natural gas boilers. However, the multiplication sign and the other symbol represent switching and installing technologies options respectively. In this case, it is noticed that the model decided to avoid switching any power plant from coal to natural gas for all the reduction targets since the natural gas power plants have high operational cost and our main target is to minimize the cost, so the model chose to install technologies on the power plants rather than switch them to natural gas.

Table 4.10 A summary of the optimization results for case **2.B**

<i>Plant</i>	<i>Base case</i>	<i>0% SO₂ reduction</i>		<i>5% SO₂ reduction</i>		<i>10% SO₂ reduction</i>	
		<i>S</i>	<i>FGD</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>FGD</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>FGD</i>
<i>LMB1</i>	■	■	-	■	-	■	-
<i>LMB2</i>	■	■	-	■	-	■	-
<i>NTK1</i>	■	■	-	■	-	■	-
<i>NTK2</i>	■	■	-	■	-	■	-
<i>NTK3</i>	■	■	-	■	-	■	△
<i>NTK4</i>	■	■	-	■	-	■	-
<i>ATK</i>	■	■	-	■	-	■	-
<i>LNX1</i>	○	○	-	○	-	○	-
<i>LNX2</i>	○	○	-	○	-	○	-
<i>LNX3</i>	○	○	-	○	-	○	-
<i>LNX4</i>	○	○	-	○	-	○	-
<i>THB1</i>	■	■	-	■	-	■	-
<i>THB2</i>	■	■	-	■	-	■	-

<i>Plant</i>	<i>Base case</i>	<i>30% SO₂ reduction</i>		<i>50% SO₂ reduction</i>		<i>80% SO₂ reduction</i>		<i>85% SO₂ reduction</i>	
		<i>S</i>	<i>FGD</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>FGD</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>FGD</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>FGD</i>
<i>LMB1</i>	■	■	-	■	-	■	-	■	△
<i>LMB2</i>	■	■	-	■	-	■	△	■	△
<i>NTK1</i>	■	■	-	■	△	■	△	■	△
<i>NTK2</i>	■	■	△	■	△	■	△	■	△
<i>NTK3</i>	■	■	-	■	△	■	△	■	△
<i>NTK4</i>	■	■	-	■	-	■	△	■	△
<i>ATK</i>	■	■	△	■	△	■	△	■	△
<i>LNX1</i>	○	○	-	○	-	○	-	○	-
<i>LNX2</i>	○	○	-	○	-	○	-	○	-
<i>LNX3</i>	○	○	-	○	-	○	-	○	-
<i>LNX4</i>	○	○	-	○	-	○	-	○	-
<i>THB1</i>	■	■	△	■	△	■	△	■	△
<i>THB2</i>	■	■	△	■	△	■	△	■	△

- : Coal.
- : Natural Gas.
- : No technology installed.
- △ : Technology installed.

Table 4.11 shows the total cost and SO₂ emission for each reduction target. It is clear that increasing the reduction target will lead to a higher total annualized cost since it installs more technologies each time the reduction target increased.

Table 4.11 Total cost and total SO₂ emission at different reduction targets for case 2.B

% SO₂ Reduction Target	Total cost (\$/yr)	Total SO₂ emission (ton/yr)	Cost increased %
0	3.04E+09	80223.7	
5	3.06E+09	76212.515	0.86
10	3.06E+09	70989.026	0.69
30	3.09E+09	56156.59	1.79
50	3.14E+09	35555.925	3.32
80	3.22E+09	16044.74	5.96
85	3.21E+09	9411.05	5.68

4.2.3 Sensitivity analysis

The effect of increase or decrease the cost of installed technologies was studied for this case. For an increase of 50% in the technology cost compared to the base case, we noticed that the total annualized cost increases gradually with % percentage for every SO₂ reduction target as shown in table 4.12. We investigated also the effect of decrease the technology cost with 50%, it is obviously noticed that the total cost for 5% SO₂ reduction target was equal to the total cost for the base case (86% cost increased). For a 10 % SO₂ reduction target, we noticed that the total annualized cost was dropped to 34% because of decreasing the capacity factor for the boilers which are running by natural gas

(the most expensive fuel) at Lennox power plant. Then the total cost will increase as the SO₂ reduction target increases because the model chose to apply FGD on more units until we reach 85% SO₂ reduction, we noticed that the total cost decreased and the reason behind that is also decreasing the capacity factor for the boilers which are running by natural gas (the most expensive fuel) at Lennox power plant.

As shown in table 4.12 and Figure 4.35 below, the result shows that any increase or decrease in the technology cost does not affect the number of units to be switched to run with natural gas or amount of SO₂ removed. The only affected variable is the total annualized cost.

Table 4.12 Percent increase or decrease in cost of electricity for different SO₂ reduction targets

% SO₂ Reduction	Base case	50 % Increase in Technology Cost	50 % Decrease in Technology Cost
0			
5	0.86	0.86	0.86
10	0.69	1.37	0.34
30	1.79	2.72	0.89
50	3.32	4.48	1.66
80	5.96	8.38	3.54
85	5.68	8.46	2.84

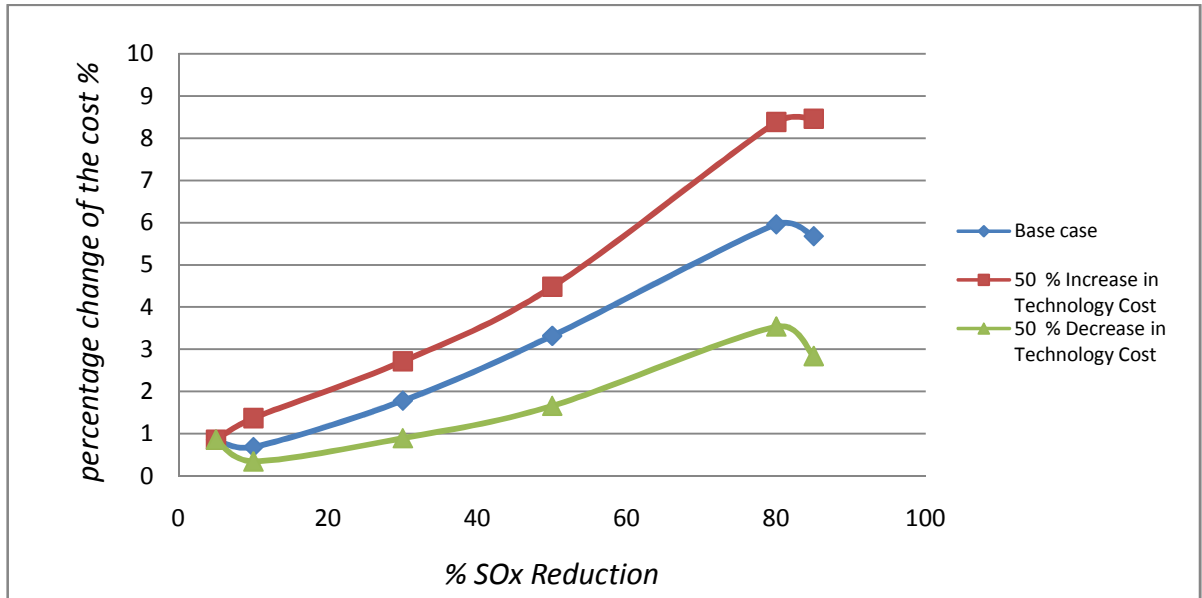


Figure 4.35Percent increase or decrease in cost of electricity for different SO₂ reduction targets

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

A general mathematical model was formulated and applied into real case studies taken from Ontario Power Generation (OPG). Three different mitigation options were considered to reduce NO_x and SO₂ and these are: fuel balancing, fuel switching and implementing different technologies.

Based on modeling findings, this study achieved the objective of developing a linearised model that is able to realize the optimal strategy or mix of strategies for the electricity sector to meet a given SO₂ or NO_x reduction target at a minimum cost while maintaining a desired production level. The model was implemented in GAMS (General Algebraic Modeling System) and applied to the Ontario Power Generation set of power plants. Two case studies (1 and 2) were illustrated: the first one considers NO_x emission reduction, and the second one considers SO₂ emission reduction.

The first case study considers two cases; the first case (1.A) involves two reduction options, fuel balancing and fuel switching, and the second case (1.B) involves one more

option in addition to the two mentioned options which is application of NO_x control technologies.

Case 1.A: For the case of no NO_x mitigation option (0% NO_x reduction), the optimization result shows that the reduction in NO_x emissions is achieved by increasing slightly the capacity factor of the non-fossil fuel generating stations (hydro-electric, nuclear and wind) and by decreasing significantly the capacity factor of Lennox. The capacity factors of the other fossil fuel plants were increased by only a small increment. However, fuel balancing can achieve up to small reduction in NO_x emissions (3%), so if NO_x emissions are to be reduced further, it will be essential to implement another option such as fuel switching. For higher reduction targets (from 5 up to 30 %), fuel switching considered the best option of choice.

For the case in which all options are considered (**Case 1.B**): For the base case (0% NO_x reduction), The model tries to increase power production from existing non thermal power plants and decrease power production from some existing thermal power plants (fuel balancing) to meet demand. For higher reduction up to 80%, no fuel switching was implemented and the model did not choose this option due to its cost. However, the results indicate that applying SCR technology is the best option to reduce NO_x emissions.

Sensitivity analysis was carried out in this case and the results show that any increase or decrease in the technology cost neither affect the number of units to be switched to natural gas nor amount of NO_x reduced. The only affected variable is the total annualized cost.

The second case study considers the second emission which is SO_2 . In this study, two cases were investigated. Two reduction options (fuel balancing and fuel switching) were studied in the first case (2.A) and the other case (2.B) studied all three mitigation options included the application of SO_2 control technology.

Case 2.A: The optimization results for the case of a 0% SO_2 reduction target show that all non fossil fuel power plants have to operate with 1% higher than the nominal capacity factor.

The reduction in SO_2 emissions is achieved by increasing slightly the electricity production of the non-fossil fuel generating stations while decreasing significantly the electricity production of Lennox power plant (fuel balancing). However, fuel balancing can achieve up to small reduction in SO_2 emissions (3%), so if SO_2 emissions are to be reduced further, it will be essential to implement another option such as fuel switching. For higher reduction targets (from 5 up to 75 %), fuel switching involving structural changes to the fleet has been considered as the optimum option for SO_2 reduction.

Case 2.B: For the base case (0% SO_2 reduction) ,The model tries to satisfy demand of each station by adjusting the operation of existing boilers e.g., increasing production from existing non thermal power plants and decreasing production from some existing thermal power plants (fuel balancing). For higher reduction up to 85%, no fuel switching was implemented and the optimization model did not select this option due to its cost .However, the results show that applying FGD technology is the best option to reduce SO_2 emissions.

Sensitivity analysis was carried out also in this case, and the result indicate that the only affected variable is the total annualized cost since any increase or decrease in the technology cost neither affect the number of units to be switched to natural gas nor amount of SO₂ removed.

5.2 Recommendations

Based on the results of this study, the following recommendations are made to extend the scope of the research area:

- Build a new power plant and incorporate it in the model to meet electricity demand in case of higher demand.
- Apply this mathematical model on a real case study from Saudi Arabia.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

GAMS CODE

(OPTIMAL NO_x REDUCTION STRATEGIES FOR OPG)

\$title Optimal NO_x reduction strategies for OPG

\$Ontext

*The objective of this model is to determine the best mix of power plants,

*fuels, annual capacity factor to meet the electricity demand while satisfying

*the NO_xreduction target at minimum cost.

\$offtext

*

*.. list all sets

*

Set i plant type /Fossil, nuclear, hydro, wind/

F fossil plants /L1,L2,N1,N2,N3,N4,A1,
LN1,LN2,LN3,LN4,TB1,TB2/

N nuclear /Pick-A,Pick-B,Darling/

H hydroelectric /NW-Cari,NW-Car,NW-Mani,NW-White,NW-Silv,NW-Kaba,
NW-Came,NW-Pine,NW-Alex,NW-Aqua,NW-Aub,NW-Wells,
NW-Ray,NW-Red,NE-Kip,NE-Harm,NE-Otter,NE-Smok,
NE-Long,NE-Abi,NE-Sturg,NE-Sandy,NE-Wawai,NE-Ind,
NE-Hound,NE-Notch,NE-Mata,O-Huld,O-Joa,O-Chen,
O-Cala,O-Barr,O-Mount,O-Stew,O-Amp,O-Chats,O-Saund,
N-DeCew,N-DeCew2,N-Beck1,N-Beck2,N-Beck3,E-Mc,
E-Conis,E-Crys,E-Nipi,E-Bing,E-Elli,E-Ragg,E-Eddy,
E-Chute,E-Hanna,E-Treth,E-South,E-High,E-Mern,

E-Lake,E-Heal,E-Sey,E-Ran,E-Aub,E-Eugen,E-Sills,
E-Hag,E-Frank,E-Sid,E-Meyer/

W wind /Tiverton/

k technology /LNB,SNCR,SCR/

j fuels /coal,ng/;

*

*.. list all scalars

*

Scalar MaxE Electricity generated at peak time (MWe) /13000/;

Scalar Optime Annual operating time (hr per year) /8760/;

Scalar NOx NOx emission in tonne per year /37346.02/;

Scalar HydOpr Operating cost for hydroelectric (\$ per MWh) /6.75/;

Scalar WindOpr Operating cost for wind (\$ per MWh) /5.4/;

Scalar R allowable electricity increment /0.01/;

Scalar nk number of technology /3/;

*

*.. list all parameters

*

Parameters

Fmax(F) Maximum fossil electricity generation(MWh per year)

/L1 4323020

L2 4323020

N1 4292400

N2 4292400

N3 4292400

N4 4292400

A1 1883400

LN1 4686600

LN2 4686600

LN3	4686600
LN4	4686600
TB1	1357800
TB2	1357800/

Efossil(F) Electricity from fossil power plants in (MWh per year)

/L1	3242295
L2	3242295
N1	3219300
N2	3219300
N3	2619567
N4	2619567
A1	823000
LN1	690500
LN2	690500
LN3	690500
LN4	690500
TB1	745000
TB2	745000/

Enuclear(N) Electricity from nuclear power plants in MWh per year

/Pick-A	0
Pick-B	14300000
Darling	27600000/

Ehydro(H) Electricity from hydroelectric power plants in MWh per year

/NW-Cari	347328
NW-Car	88128
NW-Mani	373248
NW-White	352512

NW-Silv	248832
NW-Kaba	129600
NW-Came	414720
NW-Pine	720576
NW-Alex	347328
NE-Sandy	15768
NE-Wawai	57816
NE-Ind	15768
NE-Hound	21024
NE-Notch	1440144
NE-Mata	52560
O-Huld	1277208
O-Joa	2254824
O-Chen	756864
O-Cala	26280
O-Saund	5340096
N-DeCew	120888
N-DeCew2	756864
N-Beck1	2617488
N-Beck2	7384680
N-Beck3	914544
E-Mc	15768
E-Conis	26280
E-Crys	42048
E-Nipi	10512
E-Bing	5256
E-Elli	10512
E-Ragg	42048
E-Eddy	42048

E-Chute	52560
E-Hanna	5256
E-Treth	10512
E-South	21024
E-High	15768
E-Mern	10512
E-Lake	10512
E-Eugen	31536
E-Sills	10512
E-Hag	21024
E-Frank	15768
E-Sid	21024
E-Meyer	21900/
Ewind(W)	Electricity from wind turbine power plants in MWh per year
/Tiverton	713000/
perRed(k)	reduction
/ LNB	0.35
SNCR	0.5
SCR	0.8/;

Table FosOpr(F_j) Operational cost (\$ per MWh)

	coal	ng
L1	34.425	52.85
L2	34.425	52.85
N1	40.5	58.93
N2	40.5	58.93
N3	40.5	58.93
N4	40.5	58.93
A1	40.5	58.93

LN1	81	81
LN2	81	81
LN3	81	81
LN4	81	81
TB1	40.5	58.93
TB2	40.5	58.93 ;

parameter Rcost(F) retrofit cost (million \$ per year)

/L1	2347644
L2	2347644
N1	2330994
N2	2330994
N3	2330994
N4	2330994
A1	1022783
LN1	0
LN2	0
LN3	0
LN4	0
TB1	737355
TB2	737355/;

Table NOxemis(F,j) NOx emission from fossil (tonne per MWh)

	coal	ng
L1	0.00147	0.0010903
L2	0.00147	0.0010903
N1	0.00172	0.0010905
N2	0.00172	0.0010905
N3	0.00172	0.0010905
N4	0.00172	0.0010905
A1	0.00193	0.0010907

LN1 0.00109 0.00109
 LN2 0.00109 0.00109
 LN3 0.00109 0.00109
 LN4 0.00109 0.00109
 TB1 0.0021 0.0010909
 TB2 0.0021 0.0010909;

Table CO(F,k)

	LNB	SNCR	SCR
L1	9151053	11820111	15251756
L2	9151053	11820111	15251756
N1	10631416	13732246	17719027
N2	10631416	13732246	17719027
N3	8650858	11174025	14418097
N4	8650858	11174025	14418097
TB1	3003840	3879960	5006400
TB2	3003840	3879960	5006400;

parameter NomE Nominal electricity generated in MW;

*

NomE =(sum(F,Efossil(F))+sum(N,Enuclear(N))+sum(H,Ehydro(H))
 +sum(W,Ewind(W)))/(Optime);

*

Display NomE;

*

*.. list all variables

*

Positive Variables

En(N) adjusted electricity generation for nuclear power plants

Eh(H) adjusted electricity generation for hydroelectric power plants

gama(F,j,k) new var for linearization;

Variables cost;

Binary variables

$X(F,j)$ fuel selection

$Y(F,k)$ technology selection;

*.. list all the equations

*

Equations

totcost total annual cost for all power generation stations (\$ per year)

totNOx total NOx emission (tone per year)

totMW total electricity generation (MWh per year)

te(F)

swi(F)

newF(F,j)

newN(N)

newH(H)

newW(W)

newcon1(F,j,k)

* newcon2(F,j,k)

newcon3(F,j,k)

newcon4(F,j,k)

low(F,j)

control(F);

totcost.. cost =e=(sum((F,j),Efj(F,j)*FosOpr(F,j))+
sum(F,Rcost(F)*X(F,'ng'))+sum(N,En(N)*NucOpr)+
sum(H,Eh(H)*HydOpr)+sum(W,Ew(W)*WindOpr)+
sum((F,k),co(F,k)*y(F,k)));

```

totNOx.. sum((F,j),NOxemis(F,j)*Efj(F,j))- sum((F,j,k),NOxemis(F,j)*perRed(k)
      *gama(F,j,k))=l= (1-NOxred)*NOx;

totMW.. (sum((F,j),Efj(F,j))+sum(N,En(N))+sum(H,Eh(H))+sum(W,Ew(W)))/Optime
      =g=1.00*NomE;

newF(F,j).. Efj(F,j) =l= (1+R)*Efossil(F)*X(F,j);
newN(N).. En(N) =l= (1+R)*Enuclear(N);
newH(H).. Eh(H) =l= (1+R)*Ehydro(H);
newW(W).. Ew(W) =l= (1+R)*Ewind(W);
low(F,j).. Efj(F,j) =g= (L*Fmax(F))*X(F,j);
control(F).. sum(k,y(F,k))=l=1;

cost.l = 1;

*

*.. define model name

*

Model modell /all /;

*

*.. more commands

*

option LIMROW = 0;
option LIMCOL = 0;
*option rminlp=minos;
*option mip = osl;
*option nlp=conopt2;
option iterlim = 100000000;
Solve modell using mip minimizing cost;
display cost.l;
display totNOx.l;

```

APPENDIX B

GAMS CODE

(OPTIMAL SO₂ REDUCTION STRATEGIES FOR OPG)

\$title Optimal SO₂ reduction strategies for OPG

\$Ontext

*The objective of this model is to determine the best mix of power plants,

*fuels, annual capacity factor to meet the electricity demand while satisfying

*the SO₂ reduction target at minimum cost.

\$offtext

*

*.. list all sets

*

Set i plant type /Fossil, nuclear, hydro, wind/

F fossil plants /L1,L2,N1,N2,N3,N4,A1,

LN1, LN2, LN3, LN4, TB1, TB2/

N nuclear /Pick-A, Pick-B, Darling/

H hydroelectric /NW-Cari, NW-Car, NW-Mani, NW-White, NW-Silv, NW-Kaba,

NW-Came, NW-Pine, NW-Alex, NW-Aqua, NW-Aub, NW-Wells,

NW-Ray, NW-Red, NE-Kip, NE-Harm, NE-Otter, NE-Smok,

NE-Long, NE-Abi, NE-Sturg, NE-Sandy, NE-Wawai, NE-Ind,

NE-Hound, NE-Notch, NE-Mata, O-Huld, O-Joa, O-Chen,

O-Cala, O-Barr, O-Mount, O-Stew, O-Amp, O-Chats, O-Saund,

N-DeCew, N-DeCew2, N-Beck1, N-Beck2, N-Beck3, E-Mc,

E-Conis, E-Crys, E-Nipi, E-Bing, E-Elli, E-Ragg, E-Eddy,

E-Chute, E-Hanna, E-Treth, E-South, E-High, E-Mern,

E-Lake, E-Heal, E-Sey, E-Ran, E-Aub, E-Eugen, E-Sills,

```

                                E-Hag,E-Frank,E-Sid,E-Meyer/

W  wind          /Tiverton/

k  technology    /FGD/

j  fuels         /coal,ng/;

*

*.. list all scalars

*

Scalar MaxE      Electricity generated at peak time (MWe) /13000/;

Scalar Optime    Annual operating time (hr per year) /8760/;

Scalar HydOpr    Operating cost for hydroelectric ($ per MWh) /6.75/;

Scalar WindOpr   Operating cost for wind ($ per MWh) /5.4/;

Scalar R         allowable electricity increment /0.01/;

Scalar nk        number of technology /1/;

*

*.. list all parameters

*

Parameters

Fmax(F)          Maximum fossil electricity generation(MWh per year)

/L1              4323020

L2               4323020

N1               4292400

N2               4292400

N3               4292400

N4               4292400

A1               1883400

LN1              4686600

LN2              4686600

LN3              4686600

LN4              4686600

```


TB1	1357800
TB2	1357800/

Efossil(F) Electricity from fossil power plants in (MWh per year)

/L1	3242295
L2	3242295
N1	3219300
N2	3219300
N3	2619567
N4	2619567
A1	823000
LN1	690500
LN2	690500
LN3	690500
LN4	690500
TB1	745000
TB2	745000/

Enuclear(N) Electricity from nuclear power plants in MWh per year

/Pick-A	0
Pick-B	14300000
Darling	27600000/

Ehydro(H) Electricity from hydroelectric power plants in MWh per year

/NW-Cari	347328
NW-Car	88128
NW-Mani	373248
NW-White	352512
NW-Silv	248832
NW-Kaba	129600
NW-Came	414720

NW-Pine	720576
NW-Alex	347328
NE-Abi	1629360
NE-Sturg	26280
NE-Sandy	15768
NE-Wawai	57816
NE-Ind	15768
NE-Hound	21024
NE-Notch	1440144
NE-Mata	52560
O-Barr	925056
E-South	21024
E-High	15768
E-Mern	10512
E-Lake	10512
E-Heal	63072
E-Sey	31536
E-Ran	47304
E-Aub	10512
E-Eugen	31536
E-Sills	10512
E-Hag	21024
E-Frank	15768
E-Sid	21024
E-Meyer	21900/

Ewind(W)	Electricity from wind turbine power plants in MWh per year
/Tiverton	713000/
perRed(k)	reduction

/ FGD 0.8/;

Table FosOpr(F_j) Operational cost (\$ per MWh)

	coal	ng
L1	34.425	52.85
L2	34.425	52.85
N1	40.5	58.93
N2	40.5	58.93
N3	40.5	58.93
N4	40.5	58.93
A1	40.5	58.93
LN1	81	81
LN2	81	81
LN3	81	81
LN4	81	81
TB1	40.5	58.93
TB2	40.5	58.93;

parameter Rcost(F) retrofit cost (million \$ per year)

/L1	2347644
L2	2347644
N1	2330994
N2	2330994
N3	2330994
N4	2330994
A1	1022783
LN1	0
LN2	0
LN3	0
LN4	0

TB1 737355

TB2 737355/;

Table SOxemis(F,j) SO₂ emission from fossil (tonne per MWh)

	coal	ng
L1	0.00286	0.0008203
L2	0.00286	0.0008203
N1	0.0039	0.0008205
LN1	0.00082	0.00082
LN2	0.00082	0.00082
LN3	0.00082	0.00082
LN4	0.00082	0.00082
TB1	0.006	0.0008209
TB2	0.006	0.0008209;

Table CO(F,k)

	FGD
L1	25345866
L2	25345866
N1	25738304
LN2	1160731
LN3	1160731
LN4	1160731
TB1	9163500
TB2	9163500;

parameter NomE Nominal electricity generated in MW;

*

$$\text{NomE} = (\text{sum}(\text{F}, \text{Efossil}(\text{F})) + \text{sum}(\text{N}, \text{Enuclear}(\text{N})) + \text{sum}(\text{H}, \text{Ehydro}(\text{H})) + \text{sum}(\text{W}, \text{Ewind}(\text{W}))) / (\text{Optime});$$

*

Display NomE;

*

*.. list all variables

*

Positive Variables

$E_{fj}(F,j)$ adjusted electricity generation for fossil power plants used j fuels

$v(F)$ % reduction

$\gamma(F,j,k)$ new var for linearization;

Binary variables

$X(F,j)$ fuel selection

$Y(F,k)$ technology selection;

*.. list all the equations

*

Equations

totcost total annual cost for all power generation stations (\$ per year)

totSO₂ total SO₂ emission (tone per year)

totMW total electricity generation (MWh per year)

newcon1(F,j,k)

* newcon2(F,j,k)

newcon3(F,j,k)

newcon4(F,j,k)

low(F,j)

control(F);

totcost.. cost = e = (sum((F,j), $E_{fj}(F,j) * F_{osOpr}(F,j)$)) +
sum(F, $R_{cost}(F) * X(F, 'ng')$) + sum(N, $E_n(N) * N_{ucOpr}$) +
sum(H, $E_h(H) * H_{ydOpr}$) + sum(W, $E_w(W) * W_{indOpr}$) +
sum((F,k), $co(F,k) * y(F,k)$));

totSO₂.. sum((F,j), $SO_2emis(F,j) * E_{fj}(F,j)$) - sum((F,j,k), $SO_2emis(F,j) * perRed(k)$)

```

*gamma(F,j,k)=l= (1-SO2red)*SO2;

totMW.. (sum((F,j),Efj(F,j))+sum(N,En(N))+sum(H,Eh(H))+sum(W,Ew(W)))/Optime
=g=1.0*NomE;

te(F).. sum(k,y(F,k))+nk*X(F,'ng')=l=nk;

swi(F).. sum(j,X(F,j)) =e= 1;

newF(F,j).. Efj(F,j) =l= (1+R)*Efossil(F)*X(F,j);

newN(N).. En(N) =l= (1+R)*Enuclear(N);

newH(H).. Eh(H) =l= (1+R)*Ehydro(H);

newW(W).. Ew(W) =l= (1+R)*Ewind(W);

low(F,j).. Efj(F,j) =g= (L*Fmax(F))*X(F,j);

control(F).. sum(k,y(F,k))=l=1;

cost.l = 1;

*

*.. define model name

*

Model modell /all /;

*

*.. more commands

*

option LIMROW = 0;

option LIMCOL = 0;

*option rminlp=minos;

*option mip = osl;

*option nlp=conopt2;

option iterlim = 100000000;

Solve modell using mip minimizing cost;

display cost.l;

display totSO2.l;

```

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